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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

BY PROF. MARTIN L. D'OOGHE.

Of the University of Michigan.

FIRST ARTICLE.

THE American School of Classical Studies at Athens is now in the eleventh year of its existence. An account of its origin, aims, and work will interest all who may wish to know something about the outlook of classical learning and the progress of archaeological studies in this country. The school owes its inception to a desire on the part of the best known teachers of Greek in this country to give to classical studies a broader aim and a more vital connection with the life and thought of the day.

To foster the study of Greek and Roman literature and civilization as a means of direct acquaintance with the noblest types of ancient and as a key to the true interpretation of modern life, may be said to be the underlying purpose of the founding of this school. This purpose is only part of the general movement that characterizes all the studies of modern science, namely, to learn things in the concrete, to see the objective side of life, and to know things in their relation to one another. And so, what the laboratory is to the student of biology and physics, that the American school at Athens may be said to be to the student of Greek,—a workshop in which he deals with the old Hellenic life in the concrete, as seen in the remains of ancient art, in the environment of the old life, and in the striking survival of ancient customs and traditions.

The idea of establishing such a school is by no means original with us Americans. The French government has supported a school

for the study of classical archaeology in Athens for upward of forty years, while the German Institute is nearly twenty years old. In these schools students are trained to become scientific archaeologists and teachers of Greek in the universities and lycées and gymnasia of Germany and France, at the expense of the respective governments. The English have followed our example and established a school with an organization similar to our own, on a site contiguous to our building. That we Americans need a school of this kind more than any other people can hardly be disputed. German, French, and English students can make a vacation trip to Athens, and have easy access to the museums of London, Paris, and Berlin, and to other collections of ancient art and archaeological remains. But to our students a year's residence and study in Europe, which must include a visit of several weeks in Athens and Rome, is inadequate to give them the same advantages that are enjoyed by those who pursue their classical studies within easy reach of the Elgin Marbles, the Frieze of Pergamon, the Capitoline Hill, and the Acropolis.

No one will dissent from the opinion expressed by Professor Goodwin, the first director of the school, when he says, in his annual report, with reference to those who are to be teachers of Greek letters and art: "I can conceive of no better preparation for enthusiastic work than to spend eight months in the study of Greece herself, in viewing her temples and learning the secrets of their

architecture, and in studying geography and history at once by exploring her battlefields, her lines of communication through her mountain passes, and the sites of her famous cities." A well-known English scholar once said: "You can stand on Mt. Pentelicus and study history by the hour."

The desultory and unsatisfactory studies and rambles of those earlier years, when classical students who visited Greece had no guidance beyond that offered by a copy of Murray's or Baedeker's Guide-Book, or by the friendly aid of some benevolent resident of Athens, have now been replaced by a course of systematic study and exploration under competent instruction and with the aid of a well-selected library.

The present chairman of the managing committee, Professor Seymour of Yale, in comparing the advantages afforded by the school, which he visited in 1886, with the slender opportunities for study of his earlier visit, says: "I learned more in five days than in my first five weeks in 1872. This was not simply because I had been in Attica before, nor because I had continued my studies and knew what I wanted to see, but mainly because of the American school. One can hardly estimate too highly the simple boon of using the library. The very air of the school was redolent with philological and archaeological ideas. Some of the members were interested in epigraphy, others in topography, others in architecture. I learned the latest views from enthusiastic teachers on the very spot where the evidence could be presented before my eyes."

While the schools planted in Athens by France and Germany are supported by their respective governments, our American school receives its support from the voluntary con-

tributions of friends of classical study and of the colleges associated together for this purpose. A more detailed account of its organization will help us to understand better the functions of this school in its relation to our higher education. The Archaeological Institute of America appointed in 1881 a committee on the establishment of a school of classical studies at Athens, at the head of which was Professor John Williams White of Har-

vard, who was as successful as he was untiring in his efforts to secure a temporary endowment for this enterprise. The co-operation of twelve prominent colleges was secured, each of which agreed to contribute directly or through its friends \$250 per annum to defray the expenses of the school for a period of ten years. It was hoped that during this period the benefits arising from the school would become so well known that a permanent endowment sufficient for its support would easily be raised. This expectation has been



Lion Gate, Mycenae.

so far realized that at present about \$50,000 are in hand, and the prospect of securing double this amount, which would be the sum needed, is fairly good. Meanwhile about \$30,000 have been contributed and expended for the erection of a commodious building as a home for the school. The management of the school was placed in the hands of a committee which includes the president of the Archaeological Institute and a representative of each of the associated colleges. The number of colleges that co-operate in this work is at present twenty. The immediate conduct of the work of the school was placed at first in charge of a director who should be sent out on an annual appointment from one of the associated colleges, without expense to the school. This arrangement has thus far been readily carried out by the colleges whose

professors have been honored by receiving this appointment, in the belief that the year's residence at Athens would be of great advantage to the man who was thus sent out, and consequently to the college that sent him.

In this way the direct influence of the school has been felt in a number of our colleges, and every institution of learning from which either a student or teacher has gone to Athens has become a center of interest in archaeological study. The fruits of this influence have already been wholesome and abundant, and it needs no prophet to predict that henceforth classical studies in this country will be pursued with more interest and profit, because they are pursued in a spirit that seeks to know what the Greek and Roman civilization has done for the world.

It needs but a moment's reflection, however, to suggest that with an annually changing directorship the continuity and efficiency of the work of the school must be seriously impaired. Accordingly, the managing committee had it in mind from the

colleges, by having each year one of their representatives resident in the school to aid in directing the reading and researches of the students. In 1886 the arrangement of having a permanent and an annual director in charge first went into effect by the appointment of Dr. Charles Waldstein as director for a period of five years. Dr. Waldstein had been for several years reader on archaeology in the University of Cambridge, England, and keeper of the Fitzwilliam Museum, and has brought to his new duties great enthusiasm, critical acquaintance with ancient art, skill in conducting explorations, ability to secure the interest of influential patrons, and fine literary qualities as a writer. This appointment having expired, the committee, being unwilling to lose entirely the valuable services of Dr. Waldstein, have invited him to conduct excavations and to give lectures on the History of Greek Sculpture for a period of three months each school year. This year the office of director is to be filled by Dr. Frank B. Tarbell, who was the efficient annual director in 1889-90. The annual director



Tiryns. Arches of south gallery.

first to substitute for the annual a permanent director as soon as the funds at their disposal would warrant it. But longer observation of the work of the school led to the conviction that the annual directorship ought not to be abolished, and that the school should be kept in the closest contact with the

for the present year is Professor John Williams White,* to whom the school owes

* Since the above was written, Professor White has been obliged to decline the directorship, and in his stead has been appointed Professor James R. Wheeler, of the University of Vermont, who was a member of the school during the first year of its existence.—M. L. D'O.

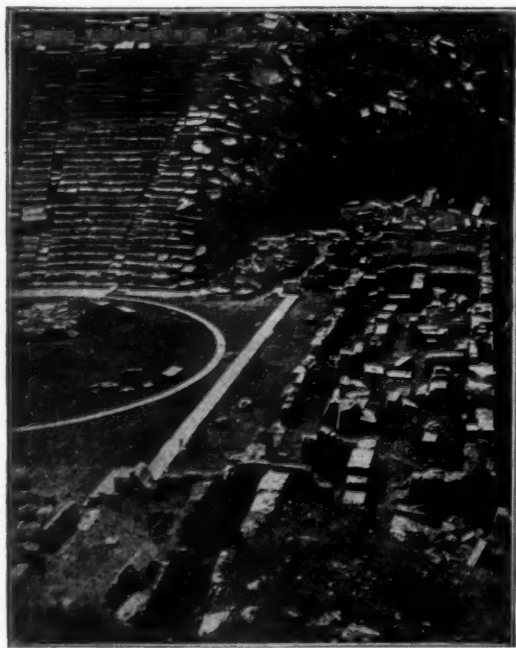
much of its initial success. A more efficient and complete direction could hardly be possible. Art, epigraphy, topography, literature, each has its corypheus.

The students of our school share to some extent also the privileges of the other national schools planted in Athens, and are the recipients of many courtesies at the hands of the officials of the Athenian university and government officials. They are invited to attend the public sessions of the German and English schools, and to accompany Dr. Dörpfeld, the secretary of the German Institute, and probably the highest authority on the problems of Greek architecture, in his peripatetic lectures on the remains of the structures of ancient Athens. A single lecture from him on the great theater of Dionysus will give one a clearer knowledge of the structure of the stage and its later modi-

great ruins of Olympia, all of which he had helped to lay bare to the eager eyes of the explorers of Germany and Greece.

During the same year our school had also the benefit of hearing the venerable and distinguished architect, Mr. F. C. Penrose, who was then in charge of the British school, discuss with critical acumen the history of the building of the Parthenon, and the nature of certain foundations and fragments of architecture that had been brought to light by recent excavations on the Acropolis. Other students have access not only to the well-selected libraries of the German Institute and of the British school, as well as our own numbering about two thousand volumes, but they are also made welcome to the large libraries of the university, and of the senate of the Hellenes. Worthy of especial recognition is the favor

which the Greek people and the authorities, from the king down to the humblest *epistates*, or overseer, have shown our American school. There is probably no nation for whom the Greeks have a more cordial regard than our own. They have not forgotten the aid and sympathy which America showed them in their great struggle for independence, and they take pleasure in "paying back" as they sometimes term it, the kindness then shown to them by the citizens of the Great Republic of the West. In 1884 the Greek government offered to the school a site for a building on the slope of Mt. Lycabettus and commanding a beautiful view of Mt. Hymettus, the sea, and the eastern part of the city with the Acropolis in plain sight. This piece of land embraces about an acre and a half, and is valued at about thirteen thousand dollars. Upon it has been erected a commodious and substantial building containing rooms for the director, a large library room, and six



Theater at Epidauros.

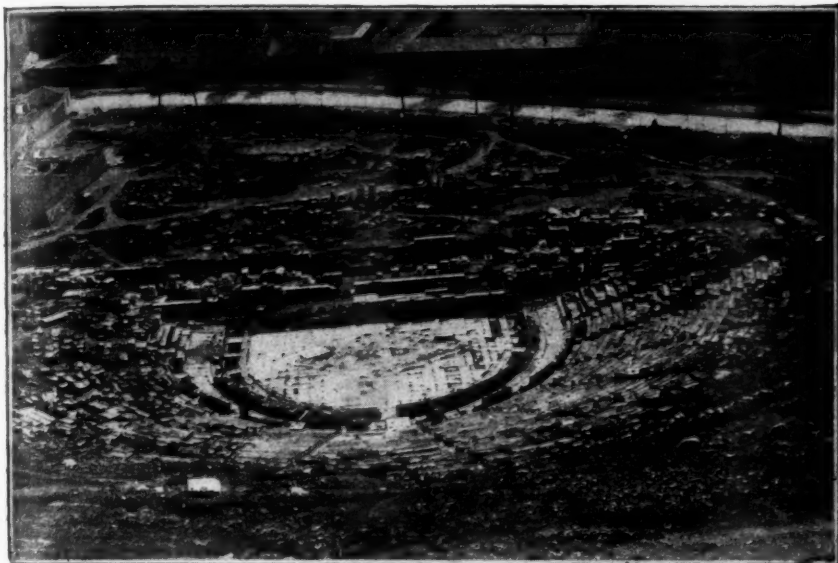
fications than could be gained from the reading of a dozen treatises. During my stay in 1886-87 the members of the school had the great privilege of hearing from this brilliant archaeologist and admirable expounder a minute explanation of the prehistoric palace of Tiryns, the tombs of Mycenæ, and the

rooms for students, at an expense of about \$30,000. The laying of the corner stone of the building was honored by the presence of the Greek minister of foreign affairs as the representative of the government. The sessions of the school have been repeatedly attended by the king and queen and other

members of the royal family—an honor not enjoyed, we believe, by any other foreign school.

The number of students who have thus far been placed upon the roll of the school is forty-five, representing at least eighteen dif-

The authorities of the school have been generous in extending courtesies and in giving information to our fellow-countrymen who have come to Greece as tourists, and many an intelligent traveler has reaped great benefit from a brief sojourn in Athens



Theater of Dionysus at Athens.

ferent colleges. The large majority of these are at present engaged as professors of Greek in colleges located in twenty different states of the Union. This fact alone speaks for the widespread and pervasive influence of this school.

For the benefit of those who may wish hereafter to connect themselves with the school, it may be well to state under what conditions one may become a member. We quote from the regulations :

"Bachelors of Arts of co-operating colleges, and all Bachelors of Arts who have studied at one of these colleges as candidates for a higher degree are admitted to membership in the school on presenting to the committee a certificate from the instructors in classics of the college at which they have last studied, stating that they are competent to pursue an independent course of study at Athens. All other persons who desire to become members of the school must make application to the committee. Members of the school are subject to no charge for tuition."

through the aid afforded by the library and by the members of the school.

The work of the school may be classified as general and special. The general work consists first in the reading and interpretation of Greek authors, especially such as have much local coloring and are full of allusions to customs and environment. A good example of this class of authors is Aristophanes the comedian. Another important study of a general nature is topography, which is generally best pursued by tours in the interior. A day spent on the island of Salamis or Ægina will do more to give one a clear understanding of the relation of these two islands to Athenian history than could be gained from a month's study of the maps.

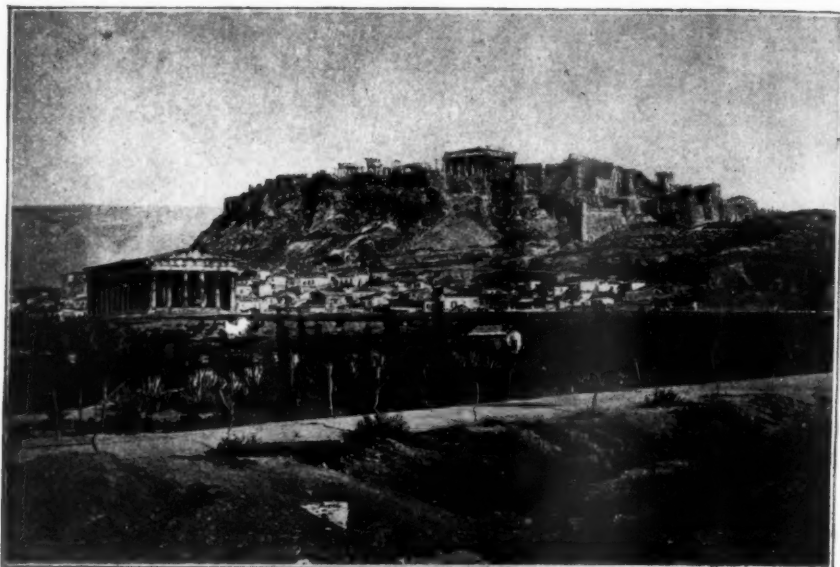
A professor in one of our colleges remarked to me a few days ago : "I never could understand how the Greeks came to place the great oracle of Apollo at Delphi until I saw the awe-inspiring scenery of this locality." Another department of the work is the study

at first hand of the remains of ancient architecture and the treasures of ancient art preserved in the museums.

A direct study of the majestic ruins of the temple of Olympian Zeus or of the stately Parthenon is of itself an introduction to the principles of Athenian architecture and the noblest products of genius and art.

The national museum of Athens is perhaps the richest in specimens of Greek sculpture

ploration ; or, in other terms, what it has done to enrich the science of archæology. To scholars in this science, doubtless, this part of the function of the school constitutes its chief mission, and what it has achieved in this science is regarded as its special merit and excellence. The work of exploring and excavating the relics of the old Greek civilization and of making independent and original researches has from the first been one



Acropolis and Temple of Theseus at Athens.

in all the world. If one wishes to study the interesting question of the use of color in architecture and statuary he must go to Athens to see for himself the best specimens of this feature of ancient art anywhere to be found. It is well for the student to have photographs, it is still better to study casts, but how much more satisfying to study the originals as they came from the hand of the ancient artist.

Having thus indicated the general work and aim of the school and given some account of its organization and history, it remains to note what it has accomplished in the way of special research and original ex-

of the distinct aims of the school. That this special and higher work should go hand in hand with the studies that have been just described is of the first importance to the character of the whole. By the finding and acquisition of fresh material are not only new problems in archæology to be raised and old problems to be solved, but the entire study of classical literature and life must by this means receive new light and significance. What our American school has been able to accomplish in this direction forms a most interesting and inspiring chapter in its history, which is reserved for a future number.

OUR GOVERNMENT EXHIBIT AT THE WORLD'S FAIR.

BY CHARLES WORTHINGTON.

AMONG the thousands of exhibitors who will demonstrate at the Columbian Exposition the nature and advance of their art and its use to mankind, will be one whose collection should be seen either first or last of all, for in it is to be found the keynote and explanation of the existence of the whole wonder. Had an exposition, professing the same purpose as this, to illustrate the material progress of civilization, been attempted before the birth of this one exhibitor, the whole display could have been placed in a single gallery of any one of the present Exposition buildings; the very names of some mammoth structures of to-day, such as the Electricity Building, would have been unintelligible; others, such as the Transportation Building, instead of covering several acres could have served their purpose confined to the dimensions of an ordinary barn shed. Differently from other exhibitors, this remarkable one contributes a whole department, separate and independent of all those classified and controlled by the Exposition "Directory," housed in a building of its own, paid for entirely out of its own capacious wallet,—that of Uncle Sam. Without boasting, it may be said that any one, amazed by contemplating that all this achievement in science, in invention, in all useful arts, in education, agriculture, and industry is the impress made upon the civilization of forty centuries by that, approximately, of the last forty years, need only turn to the Government Building to find a solution of the mystery. Here millions of Americans who have never visited the National Capital, and those who do not understand the genius of our institutions may see that which cannot but develop patriotism in the dullest mind, and which epitomizes before the world a century's struggle of a nation for ideal human freedom. All other Exposition departments from "A" to "P," covering nearly two hundred acres of floor space, no more than indicate the collateral effect of this Titanic struggle.

The legal origin of the government's participation in the Quadricentennial of the country's discovery is found in the Exposition act of April, 1890, which provides that

there shall be exhibited by the government from its executive departments, the Smithsonian Institution, National Museum, and United States Fish Commission, such articles and materials as illustrate the functions and administrative faculty of the government in peace and its resources in war, tending to demonstrate the nature of our institutions and their adaptability to the wants of the people. To effect this exhibit the act provided for the creation of a body to be called the Board of Management of the Government Exhibits, consisting of one member from each of the eight executive departments and one from each of the three other institutions included. The erection of the Government Building was placed under the same auspices as any other public building, the sum to be expended for the building being apportioned to \$400,000, and the whole sum for which the United States would be liable for all government exhibit purposes, to \$1,500,000.

Under this and subsequent acts \$1,158,250 have already been appropriated which includes the amount allotted for the building, leaving but a comparatively small sum to be appropriated during the coming year. The size of these amounts suggests a striking contrast to those expended by the government at the Centennial, whose Government Building cost but \$80,000, or one fifth that of the structure now building, and whose whole expense defrayed by the government was but little over half a million dollars. The enormous difference in cost paid by the nation arises from the material of the present building, consisting of iron, steel, and glass for selling afterwards instead of the cheap material of the previous one, also from the vastly multiplied and enlarged exhibits, and from the greater adornment of "installation" which now requires that displays intended for public instruction shall be artistically set to avoid suggesting the arrangement of cracker boxes in a grocery. Financially this development of taste will probably cost for the exhibit three times as much per square foot as at the Centennial.

In accordance with the act the following men were appointed members of the Board of Management, by the president, upon the

recommendation of the secretaries of the several departments: Hon. Edwin Willits, Department of Agriculture, chairman; Assistant Secretary Nettleton for the Treasury; Capt. Clifton W. Comly, War; Capt. R. W. Mead, Navy; Gen. A. D. Hazen, Post Office; Sevellon A. Brown, State Department; E. B. Foster, Department of Justice; H. A. Taylor, Interior Department; Prof. G. Brown Goode, National Museum; J. W. Collins, Fish Commission. In addition to this board, whose duties are advisory and judicial, there are a number of special agents among the departments whose entire time is given to the choice and arrangement of the object lessons in statecraft. Chiefs of department bureaus are eager to take advantage of so rare an opportunity to place before the eyes of the American people an easily comprehended picture of what our government actually does for us, its processes and operations. An interested motive may be presumed of justifying the enormous amount we pay annually to support our impersonal sovereign.

An element of difficulty soon arose after the organization of the governmental board; there was no standard of judgment as to the most important branches to be represented. Within the past few years the Department of Agriculture had enlarged its scope until its present seventeen departments presented a strong demand for space in which to show their beneficent work in behalf of the farmer. The Fish Commission, which at the Centennial was absorbed under the Smithsonian exhibit, now offers some features in advance of those of any other such commission in the world. Actuated by similar considerations, each department made strenuous effort to secure as large an allotment of space and money as possible from the board. The allotments consequently agreed upon set apart for the Interior, Agricultural, and Smithsonian exhibits \$150,000 each; for the War and Navy exhibits, \$140,000 each; for the Fish Commission, \$100,000; for the Treasury, \$65,000; State, \$50,000; Post Office, \$20,000; Justice, \$10,000; \$25,000 remaining for contingent expenses. While departments themselves decide what shall be exhibited, the board decides proportions and how the exhibit shall be made. A general rule has been adopted limiting all branches to the exhibition of functions exclusively governmental and which cannot be duplicated by any private exhibitor.

Passing over the period of preparation, and

transporting ourselves to the perfected scene, we find the governmental dome glistening between the magnificent façade of the Manufactures Building on the south and the bewildering architectural intricacies of the Fisheries Building on the north. Bordering the lake in front is the spacious green to be used as an army camp and for the placing of outdoor national exhibits, such as the Life-Saving Station, Marine Hospital, and Irrigation processes. However fairylike the view we need not dwell upon the building itself, for among an otherwise harmonious group which has been unified upon the same classic standard of proportion and design, this one appears a hybrid species, a law unto itself. Admiring it however, as we do some people, for its purposes rather than its achievements, we find ample excuse for its being. Entering from the east the first exhibit at our right is that of the Department of Justice, probably the most vaguely comprehended of all by the average person. Justice considered abstractly as a governmental function would not seem to promise auspiciously for exposition purposes. The exhibit is small yet deserving place. Detained but a short time to look over the documents of historic interest culled from court records, and the portraits of attorney generals, with some relics of interest as Chief Justice Marshall's chair, desk, etc., we carry away a brief publication prepared for distribution under the direction of Attorney General Miller, on "The Genius of our Government," intended to illumine the relation to each other of all parts of the scene before us.

Next to this exhibit, and occupying the whole northeast section of the building is that of the Agricultural Department, illustrating primarily what the government does to improve the quality and increase the quantity of American food. From its numerous branches already established one would not suppose this the youngest executive member, now celebrating in this pretentious way only its thirtieth birthday. From collections of cereals of which over six thousand samples have already been prepared, and accompanying illustrations, the agriculturist may learn the effects upon grain, of climate, transplantation, changes of soil and altitude. It is shown, for instance, how the planting of northern raised corn in the south, produces indentations until "dent" corn results. A collection of grasses, medicinal and economic plants, with illustrations of the best herbarium

methods; demonstrations of the best methods of forest culture, of the protection and cure of fruit and fruit tree diseases and of cultivating small fruits; a complete laboratory in which analysis of food, of soils, and of sugar plants is carried on, indicate only one line of the practical work of this useful department. From its Bureau of Animal Industry, an exhibit never before contemplated, it illustrates processes of meat inspection developed largely since the admission of our meat foods by foreign countries; also proper transportation and handling of live stock; correct horseshoeing and diseases resulting from defective shoeing; and the work of the bureau at quarantine stations in investigating disease germs. A weather bureau now absorbed by this department is maintained, whose processes are explained for the purpose of diffusing meteorological knowledge.

Passing numerous displays which only those interested in particular lines of rural industry will dwell upon minutely, we reach the Fish Commission exhibit, which occupies the north central portion of the structure. One section of this representing the official manner of conducting fishery investigation includes appliances and vessels used for examining seas, lakes, and rivers together with collections indicating the searches made by the commission. Another section embraces illustrations of hatching fish by artificial means. A historical collection of appliances and methods of fish culture form a unique contrast to the present highly scientific and successful means employed in transporting fry and ova for stocking purposes, and in bringing foreign species into the country. The most important branches of American fishery, embracing the cod, the salmon, mackerel, shad, etc., together with apparatus employed by white men, Indians, and Esquimaux, furnish an instructive comparative study, while amusement is supplied by the aquarium with its unfamiliar species. This exhibit, a large part of which is novel, suggests a kindly function by which the government prevents the extinction of the finny tribe in our streams and lakes, perpetuating a valuable commercial interest, as well as diffusing a food product far more widely than nature diffuses it.

The next step brings us to the exhibit which probably more than any other depicts the peculiar genius of the American people—that of the Interior Department filling the

northwestern portion of the floor. Called the Home Department when organized almost fifty years ago, this branch of the executive has always preserved the tradition of its prototype in the miscellaneous character of its duties. Its exhibit comprises a curiosity shop beginning with models from the Patent Office Museum showing progress in invention, the models in each art being arranged as developing from the germ invention to the latest device. The Bureau of Indian Affairs promises the rare sight of a live Indian school in operation, in which Indian boys and girls recite, study, work at trades, and live the life characteristic of such a school upon an Indian reservation. Furniture and implements typify Indian art and industry. The Educational Bureau, Land Office, and Geological Survey each guarantee an exhibit in every way worthy of study and of especial value to specialists in those branches.

Occupying a strip along the western wall of the building is the postal exhibit, which serves the double purpose of affording the spectacle of a model post office at work, and of distributing mail directed to the Exposition, a valuable provision for the convenience of myriad visitors. The development and function of this branch of service are so well known, the features to be displayed need not be mentioned.

One cannot but pause when reaching the Treasury exhibit. Here is typified that system by whose triumphant efficiency we have been made and kept a nation. Had such a man as Hamilton been lacking one hundred years ago when revenue meant the only possible survival of a blood-born nation, and revenue was not, what would be to-day in place of our united government! The greatest triumphs of the Treasury cannot be exhibited—its early adoption of a financial system so far-seeing it remained equal to steering the state safely through a period whose daily outlay was greater than an entire year's income at the time of its adoption. The display however is imposing—filling the main southwest part of the building, and classified as the Coast and Geodetic Survey, Office of Weights and Measures, Bureau of Internal Revenue, Bureau of Engraving and Printing, Bureau of Statistics, Lighthouse Board, Life-saving Service, Mint, Marine Hospital Service, Office of Register of Treasury, and the Supervising Architect's Office. The Coast Survey, which is the oldest of the

scientific bureaus of the government, will be examined more particularly as presenting the best which has been accomplished in this country along the line of its operations. Its distinctive feature will be a relief map of the United States about the size of a city square, placed horizontally, intersected with paths enabling one to walk over it tracing rivers and ridges and illustrating the transcontinental system of triangulation, the line of precise leveling, the location of magnetic stations, sounding apparatus, tide gauges, and tide-predicting machines. Those who have never seen a government mint in operation will witness a similar process, in that the mint presses to be exhibited are used for making Exposition medals. After the elaborate sections of this exhibit however have been studied the visitor needs yet to be told that in our whole history not one fraud has been perpetrated by executive officials by which the United States has been robbed of a penny. The department, which has been berated for circumlocution and red tape, has a record to reward its watchfulness.

Ranged on either side of the south middle aisle are the displays of the National Museum and Smithsonian Institution, the pivotal feature of these, perhaps, being the ethnological exhibits, from which students of Indian lore may derive illustrations of the life and habits of the North American Indians, each tribe being distinguished linguistically.

The last main division of the building, the southeast, is devoted to the War Department display. This affords the Signal Service division the first opportunity to bring before the eyes of the people the latest signaling device, the balloon train. Through the telephone line which is carried by the balloon is communicated momentarily the maneuvers of the enemy whose location is commanded by the glass of the aeronaut. The ordnance division supplies machines in operation manufacturing metallic ammunition; others showing latest methods of manufacturing Springfield rifles; also small arms, field guns, siege guns, mortars, rapid-fire guns, illustrations of successive phases in gun manufacture, and, serving curiously as a commentary on the foregoing, a model of Arlington national cemetery.

Only the State Department remains, stretching from entrance to rotunda, from which all exhibits radiate. Appropriately

the visit ends with a look at the most precious documents in our history, the original Petition to George III., the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. Here is the head source of it all, the heart of the heart.

Leaving the dome under which the emblems of seven executive departments of the government symbolize our national domestic policy we cross the greensward to the northeast where lies, apparently at anchor close to the shore of the lake, the emblem of our stability abroad, a battleship which might easily be taken for one of the late triumphs in naval construction which have astonished the whole foreign world. Aside from suggesting the strange fact that it is only through the power of such sea sentinels as this that nations have traditionally respected each other, this savage-looking monster epitomizes one of the most unique phases of American development. During the whole period of our national existence there has been a contention between the executive and Congress regarding this arm of national strength. Year after year through twenty-six administrations, the president has urged and pleaded for appropriations to rehabilitate the navy. Just as persistently has Congress, representing the general will of the people, ignored the entreaty except when actual danger arose. The Monroe Doctrine, which early became part of the constitution of the people if not of the government, made the possession by the United States of colonial dependencies forever impossible. Our remoteness from rival powers and our neutral position regarding all European complications have furnished additional reason for public apathy on the subject of a strong ocean police force. The possession of strong navies by foreign governments has only heightened our aversion to them. The importance of England's navy is seen to proceed from her possession of numberless colonies over the earth to reach which it is imperative she should maintain coaling stations and keep a military eye upon every water the sun shines on. The reason for maintaining a strong navy by England has been regarded by this country as the precise reason for our not maintaining one. We covet no Gibraltar, we are indifferent to the control of the Suez Canal, we care for no strategic points in western waters, for the reason that we have nothing "out doors"

to guard. Battle ships, which are the keynote to the existence of the whole British Empire, have been believed by the American people to be a needless armament. Hand in hand with the decay of our first navy, which was fairly creditable, has declined our merchant marine, whose existence without governmental protection was rendered too exposed and hazardous to survive. It has offended American pride not the least to carry on commerce in foreign vessels, or to be derided for cherishing a "popgun navy." American commerce has been in the main domestic; having no neighbors to quarrel with she has little concern for the stranger across the waters. The navy consequently has crumbled to pieces from disuse.

Within the past decade a change has taken place in public opinion, following a change in conditions. While as little disposed to fight as ever, and as little enamored with foreign possessions, our economic relations with other countries are fast changing. We can no longer consume our own productions. Europe and South America are becoming excellent customers for the disposal of our surplus. With the enlargement of foreign trade has grown the impression that there should go with it a sea patrol. Our diplomatic relations have correspondingly increased, to maintain which "national neighborliness" on a firm basis of dignity requires a suitable outfit.

Thus half unconsciously America has acquired the impression that she should have a respectable sea army. Fifteen years after the close of the war finds her entering upon an unwonted era of activity so remarkable, as to have given rise to what is called the "new navy." The greater part of this period has been characterized however by the building of cruisers and torpedo boats.

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scientific bureaus of the government, will be examined more particularly as presenting the best which has been accomplished in this country along the line of its operations. Its distinctive feature will be a relief map of the United States about the size of a city square, placed horizontally, intersected with paths enabling one to walk over it tracing rivers and ridges and illustrating the transcontinental system of triangulation, the line of precise leveling, the location of magnetic stations, sounding apparatus, tide gauges, and tide-predicting machines. Those who have never seen a government mint in operation will witness a similar process, in that the mint presses to be exhibited are used for making Exposition medals. After the elaborate sections of this exhibit however have been studied the visitor needs yet to be told that in our whole history not one fraud has been perpetrated by executive officials by which the United States has been robbed of a penny. The department, which has been berated for circumlocution and red tape, has a record to reward its watchfulness.

Ranged on either side of the south middle aisle are the displays of the National Museum and Smithsonian Institution, the pivotal feature of these, perhaps, being the ethnological exhibits, from which students of Indian lore may derive illustrations of the life and habits of the North American Indians, each tribe being distinguished linguistically.

The last main division of the building, the southeast, is devoted to the War Department display. This affords the Signal Service division the first opportunity to bring before the eyes of the people the latest signaling device, the balloon train. Through the telephone line which is carried by the balloon is communicated momentarily the maneuvers of the enemy whose location is commanded by the glass of the aeronaut. The ordnance division supplies machines in operation manufacturing metallic ammunition; others showing latest methods of manufacturing Springfield rifles; also small arms, field guns, siege guns, mortars, rapid-fire guns, illustrations of successive phases in gun manufacture, and, serving curiously as a commentary on the foregoing, a model of Arlington national cemetery.

Only the State Department remains, stretching from entrance to rotunda, from which all exhibits radiate. Appropriately

the visit ends with a look at the most precious documents in our history, the original Petition to George III., the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. Here is the head source of it all, the heart of the heart.

Leaving the dome under which the emblems of seven executive departments of the government symbolize our national domestic policy we cross the greensward to the northeast where lies, apparently at anchor close to the shore of the lake, the emblem of our stability abroad, a battleship which might easily be taken for one of the late triumphs in naval construction which have astonished the whole foreign world. Aside from suggesting the strange fact that it is only through the power of such sea sentinels as this that nations have traditionally respected each other, this savage-looking monster epitomizes one of the most unique phases of American development. During the whole period of our national existence there has been a contention between the executive and Congress regarding this arm of national strength. Year after year through twenty-six administrations, the president has urged and pleaded for appropriations to rehabilitate the navy. Just as persistently has Congress, representing the general will of the people, ignored the entreaty except when actual danger arose. The Monroe Doctrine, which early became part of the constitution of the people if not of the government, made the possession by the United States of colonial dependencies forever impossible. Our remoteness from rival powers and our neutral position regarding all European complications have furnished additional reason for public apathy on the subject of a strong ocean police force. The possession of strong navies by foreign governments has only heightened our aversion to them. The importance of England's navy is seen to proceed from her possession of numberless colonies over the earth to reach which it is imperative she should maintain coaling stations and keep a military eye upon every water the sun shines on. The reason for maintaining a strong navy by England has been regarded by this country as the precise reason for our not maintaining one. We covet no Gibraltar, we are indifferent to the control of the Suez Canal, we care for no strategic points in western waters, for the reason that we have nothing "out doors"

to guard. Battle ships, which are the keynote to the existence of the whole British Empire, have been believed by the American people to be a needless armament. Hand in hand with the decay of our first navy, which was fairly creditable, has declined our merchant marine, whose existence without governmental protection was rendered too exposed and hazardous to survive. It has offended American pride not the least to carry on commerce in foreign vessels, or to be derided for cherishing a "popgun navy." American commerce has been in the main domestic; having no neighbors to quarrel with she has little concern for the stranger across the waters. The navy consequently has crumbled to pieces from disuse.

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almost all the guns of the ship may be trained on a single point. Inside may be seen implements for serving up ammunition through the bulk-heads for breach-loading, the manipulation of torpedo tubes, and the use of the thousand fittings required to equip a war vessel. A huge torpedo net is stretched the length of the vessel on one side to show the manner of resisting torpedo attacks.

Inoffensively exhibiting its mechanism and naval relics and affording quarters for officers, marines, and sailors during the Exposition, the great machine seems little more than a marvel of inventive skill. The thought of it in action during which it is capable of belching forth 3,200 pounds of steel

at every volley, or over two and a half tons of metal at a broadside, compels one to turn from its leveled weapons with horror. A monument of savagery!

This with many other government exhibits represents the attainment of this country in the application of science to the art. Not only does the average person learn through these exhibits the variety and scope of scientific activity officially conducted at the capital, but that each branch tends materially to increase the welfare of the people. No one can view the display without feeling truly that though devoid of paternalism our government is one of the most benign agencies in civilization.

THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION.

BY PROF. RICHARD T. ELY, PH. D., LL. D.

Of the University of Wisconsin.

THE following memorable words, written by Dr. Thomas Arnold, may well serve as an introduction to the present article: "One would think that people who talk against change were literally, as well as metaphorically, blind, and really did not see that everything in themselves and around them is changing every hour by the necessary laws of its being. There is nothing so revolutionary because there is nothing so unnatural and convulsive to society as the strain to keep things fixed, when all the world is by the very law of its creation an eternal progress; and the cause of all the evils of the world may be traced to that natural, but most deadly error of human indolence and corruption—that our business is to preserve and not to improve."

It is true, as Dr. Arnold has stated, that changes are always taking place. The law of change is universal, and applies to society as well as the external physical universe. It may indeed be said that in one sense this law of change is more applicable to human institutions than to the physical universe, because the social changes are more rapid. While social changes are relatively rapid, they are, nevertheless, ordinarily slow, as compared with the brevity of human life. The ordinary man is impressed rather with the fact of stability than constant growth and transformation. During the greater part of

the world's history the evolution of society has progressed so slowly in most countries that one is obliged to examine the events of centuries to trace the movement. The past one hundred and fifty years differ from the preceding ages of the world, not in the fact of movement, but in the rapidity of movement. Changes in economic life have progressed so swiftly that we may fairly call them revolutionary. The word revolutionary indicates upheavals, rather than slow and regular progress, and is applicable here. We live in a new economic world.

Arnold Toynbee, the young Oxford economist and humanitarian who has left so fragrant a memory, wrote a book called "The Industrial Revolution," and in it he traces the changes in industrial life since 1760. 1760 is, perhaps, as good a date as one could take for the beginning of the economic revolution. If we accept this date we may then say that the changes in the past century and a third have been more profound and far-reaching than the economic changes during the preceding period since the age of Plato and Aristotle.

Illustrations of the economic revolution abound on every hand. Those modes of production which we take as a mere matter of course, were, for the most part, entirely unknown in 1760. It will be readily admitted that a business world which could exist

without banks must have been a radically different business world from that which we now know. It is only a little over a century since there were but three banks in the entire United States. If these banks had entirely suspended their operations, undoubtedly harm would have resulted; but most men and women would have continued their ordinary course of life and been entirely unaware of the disaster. The misfortune would in no way have entered into the lives of the great majority of citizens. Should one half of our thousands of banks now fail, it would be a deplorable calamity, the like of which has rarely been witnessed. Suffering and poverty would be widespread, and undoubtedly thousands and hundreds of thousands would be deprived of the barest necessities of life.

What are the forces which have brought about this economic revolution? They are covered by two words, discoveries and inventions. An event which is in the mind of all of us at the present time, although preceding the industrial revolution, contributed to it most powerfully, — the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492. A new hemisphere was discovered for the free play of the new forces about to come into existence. The history of commerce is divided by some writers into four periods. The first extends to 476 A. D., the date of the overthrow of the Western Empire of the Romans. The second from 476 to 1492. 1492 is the date of the beginning of what may be called "modern commerce," and the first period extends to 1776, a date memorable on account of the Declaration of Independence. The last period of commerce extends from 1776 to the present time. The rapidly shortening period is significant. It is interesting to note that two great American events have been taken as starting points for two of the four periods into which the history of commerce has been divided.

The year 1776 is also notable on account of the publication of Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations," which was the herald of the economic revolution and the preparation for it. The economic revolution had only just begun when Adam Smith wrote his celebrated work. One writer says that since the publication of that book the economic activities of the world have gained more in intensity than during the entire previous period of recorded history.

Dr. Benjamin Rand, of Harvard University, has compiled a book entitled "Selections Illustrating Economic History since the Seven Years' War." These selections describe the forces which have brought about the economic revolution. One of them is entitled "The Great Inventions," and is taken from Spencer Walpole's "History of England." Those inventions are there described in detail which have made the present economic world more different from that of 1776 than the economic world of 1776 was from that of the early Oriental monarchies.

The fly shuttle was invented by Kay in 1738. This was the first of the great inventions which revolutionized the woolen industry in England. In 1769 James Watt, then thirty-three years of age, invented the steam engine, and sixteen years later steam was applied to the manufacture of cotton. John Hargreaves, a poor weaver, invented the spinning jenny and patented it in 1770. Richard Arkwright, a barber's assistant, invented the water frame in 1769. In 1779, Samuel Crompton, a weaver, invented a machine called a "mule," which combined the excellences of Arkwright's water frame and Hargreave's spinning jenny. Edmund Cartwright produced the power loom in 1787.

We have here enumerated the great inventions, which, with those naturally following them, have transformed England, making it the wealthiest country in the world, and which, extended to other countries, produced equally momentous economic changes. These economic changes likewise produced most important political changes, transferring political power from the agricultural to the manufacturing classes.

The name of Watt is associated with that of Bolton, proprietor of the Soho works near Birmingham. Watt and Bolton formed a partnership in 1784, and many improvements were made in Watt's original invention. The use of coal instead of wood, which was rapidly disappearing in England, was an important feature of the economic revolution. When iron was smelted with coal, the iron trade had secured a stable basis which made its subsequent development possible. Sir Humphry Davy's safety lamp, which rendered mining so much less dangerous than heretofore, quickly followed the increased demand for coal. The era of canal construction before the close of the century was soon followed by rapid improvements in public roads,

under Telford and Macadam. The inventions already mentioned naturally led to the application of steam to navigation and the steam railway in this century.

Spencer Walpole says, in speaking of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, Watt, and Davy :

"The ingenuity of these great men has been exercised with different objects ; but the inventions of each of them have given fresh importance to the discoveries of the others. The spinning jenny, the water frame, and the mule would have been deprived of half their value if they had not been supplemented with the power loom. The power loom would, in many places, have been useless without the steam engine. The steam engine would have been idle had it not been for coal, and coal would not have been won without danger had it not been for Sir Davy. Coal, then, was a commodity whose extended use was gradually revolutionizing the world."

The import of the industrial revolution will be better understood if we look about us and observe how many new things there are upon which our comfort, convenience, and even livelihood depend ; and by new things I mean things which were unknown at the beginning of the economic revolution. Banks have been mentioned. A revolution has taken place in the significance of banking ; and yet banks of some kind have existed for centuries. Railways, however, are entirely new, and so are street cars of every description. Electricity, in all its applications, must be mentioned as a new economic force. We think at once of the telegraph and the telephone and the phonograph. The use of gas, natural and artificial, is new. Anthracite coal and petroleum were not employed before the beginning of this century. When the first boat-load of anthracite coal was brought to Philadelphia in 1806, no one knew how to use it.

Changes of laws or customs have accompanied or followed the inventions and improvements in the economic process, and have formed an essential part of the economic revolution. The competitive system of industry includes the most important of these changes. Competition has taken the place of regulation, and free contract the place of status. The right to buy and sell land freely, to settle where one pleases, and to follow whatever occupation one chooses are rights of the present century.

Discussions concerning labor and capital presuppose the new world in which we live.

These discussions would scarcely have been understood two hundred years since. The very language which we use is new, and when old words are used they have a new significance. A good illustration of this is found in the use of the word "manufacturer" by Adam Smith in his "Wealth of Nations." The word there means a man who works with his own hands and is employed by others ; not the great captain of industry who employs thousands of wage-earners and acquires vast wealth. The word "spinster" is interesting in this connection. Every unmarried girl is called a spinster, because in the old days of hand work it was taken as a mere matter of course that unmarried daughters of the house were spinners. A woman was sometimes called a "distaff," because that was her ordinary occupation. The great concentration of production is new. The power of capital is something new. Ancient works which treat of economic institutions scarcely employ the word "capital," whereas no word is more frequent in current treatises. The "Fourth Estate" is something new. It is only since the French Revolution that we begin to hear the expression "Fourth Estate," meaning thereby a large class of wage-earners who must, with few exceptions, permanently remain wage-earners. The changes already mentioned, especially cheap and rapid communication, have brought about combinations of labor and capital, of which the fathers of the American Republic never dreamed, and for which they naturally could make no provision in their fundamental laws and institutions. Strikes and lockouts with anything like their present significance are new. We now hear much of compulsory arbitration. It would, no doubt, be difficult even to find the words in the writings of the last century. Commerce is as old as the world but its present significance is new. The vast fortunes of the world and the magnitude of the problems of pauperism may be mentioned as new. We have a new plutocracy and a new pauperism.

Corporations controlling a large percentage of the resources of the civilized world are of the present century, and still more recent are close combinations of corporations. It is only within a few years that the word "trust," virtually a corporation composed of corporations, has become familiar to us. What has really happened to us in the latter half of the economic revolution is this : A new noncompet-

itive world has been superimposed on the old competitive world. The old competitive world embraced agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. The new noncompetitive world includes those pursuits which are natural monopolies, like gasworks, waterworks, electric works, and all kinds of railways and the like. Our forefathers and the founders of our systems of economic thought made provision for a competitive world, but not for this newest noncompetitive world.

The result of economic revolution has been a multitude of economic problems which are not local but international and cosmopolitan. What has already been written has brought to mind these problems. Labor organizations suggest a variety of problems, including the normal working day. Banks, corporations, and trusts suggest a multitude of problems. The higher ethical standards in the dealing of men with one another have raised a multi-

tude of problems. Transactions which were passed without challenge one hundred years ago are now questioned. Early religions bound members of a single locality closely together, and attempted to regulate economic relations according to principles of fraternity; but all outside the immediate neighborhood, certainly all outside the small "Fatherland," were barbarians, connected by no ethical ties. There is now an attempt in progress to bring all the transactions of the world under the control of ethical principles. The wide extension of fraternalism made it for a time less intensive, but now it is becoming more intensive; that is to say, deeper. "A new world needs a new ethical economy." Earnest study and conscientious effort are required to solve the difficult problems to which the economic revolution has given rise. The study of social science in all its phases, including political economy, is now a duty.

WOMEN IN GREEK HISTORY.*

BY EMILY F. WHEELER.

Of Northwestern University.

AMONG the precious gifts we owe to Greece, the practice of monogamy† may well be reckoned; for this, one of the foundation stones of civilization, was the basis of Greek life and religion. The state was built on the tribe; the tribe on the family, and this, in turn, on the idea of a common ancestor to whom alone they had the right to offer sacrifice. So the bride, quitting her father's house, left a parting libation on the family altar; and her entrance into the new household was marked by sacrificing, with her husband, to his ancestors. She gave up her father's house, her father's ancestral gods, when she broke the nuptial bread and joined in the new libation. Hence the wife was a part of their religion, a necessity for the maintenance of worship; and if love were no part of the program and acquaintance and sympathy unnecessary, her position was still one of honor and dignity. Homer's men, though far from stainless, since the captive of their bow might easily

become a wife's rival, are yet all monogamists, and, as has been said, "in no respect has life in Homeric times so modern an aspect as in the position of wedded wives. They are usually equal in rank and fortune to the husband, and they have always a high place and much influence." Homer is not at all of the opinion of Thucydides four hundred years later that "she was best who was least spoken of among men, whether for good or evil." Free social intercourse, mutual counsel and aid, are constantly implied in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. "The poets and the sculptors always tell the truth," Margaret Fuller says; and the Greek ideals of women were sublime. The real woman might be indeed, at special times and places, little better than a slave; but it is something to dream nobly. And one must always remember that the *people* were far behind the *poets*; that the general public of ancient Greece had no such nearness to the enlightenment of its leaders as in the modern world.

In the transition period after Homer came the tribe of satirists, and the picture they give us of the society of their day is certainly not flattering. But satire, in all tongues and

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

†[Mo-nog'a-my.] A Greek derivative from two words meaning alone or single, and marriage. Single marriage; the practice of marrying only once.

peoples, will have its fling at womankind, and Archilochus [ar-kil'o-kus], who leads the tribe, had private griefs to revenge. The balance is too heavily weighted with these for justice. Yet to this same period belongs the name of the greatest of Greek women in literature,—Sappho.

There were, according to the ancients, seven Greek women who were "divinely tongued" in poetry, and Sappho leads the line. As "the poet" meant always Homer, so "the poetess" was but another name for Sappho, and Aristotle ranks her without question with him. There may have been others as gifted; but, to her, environment gave opportunity. For a brief season before, and after her time, the Æolians, the eldest family of the Hellenic race, held the foreground of Greek literature, and Lesbos, her birthplace and home, was the center of Æolian culture. Their customs permitted more freedom to women than was usual in Greece. They mixed freely in general society; they were well educated and accustomed to express their sentiments to an extent unknown until our own day.

They cultivated literature, formed clubs in modern fashion for the study of poetry and music, and sought to refine metrical forms. Of such a club, in Mitylene, their chief city, Sappho was leader. There, in her own home, she gathered about her a society of women like herself, to whom she gave instruction in lyric forms and something, perhaps, of her own inspiration. Among these was Erinna, who died at nineteen, leaving one exquisite poem on the spindle, *Da-moph'i-la*, Eunice, and Anactoria, whom, by tradition, she loved above all. Of Sappho's life we know little, and that is overlaid by the scandal of satirists and comic poets who wrote two hundred years later and made a Sappho of their own to jibe and jeer at, as, in our own day, certain so-called "critics" of Shakespeare. She was married and early left a widow; she had a daughter named for her own mother; she had two brothers, of whom one was noted for grace and beauty; she was a friend of Alcæus, the other great lyricist of the time, whose work is yet, Symonds says, "not to be named in the same breath with hers, for perfection of style." One fragment which we have from her, represents Alcæus as saying, "I wish to speak, but shame restrains my tongue." To which she answers, "If thy wishes were fair and noble and thy tongue

designed not to utter what is base, shame would not cloud thine eyes." All womanly dignity is in the gentle reproof. Her works survived until the eleventh century when they were burnt at Constantinople. All we have left are fragments quoted by others, grains of gold amid much dust of grammarians; but so perfect are these scant lines and phrases that one feels in reading that the critics are right who say, "The loss of her poems is the greatest we have to mourn in the whole range of imaginative Greek literature."

The freedom enjoyed by Lesbian women was paralleled by that given them in the spear-crowned city, Sparta. Unfortunately the Spartan women had no such culture, and, perhaps in part because they had no outlet of clubs for poetry and music, their energies turned more to public affairs. Aristotle, indeed, complained of them that they almost ruined their country; but there, at least, they retained to the last somewhat of the dignity and influence of Homer's women. Plutarch in telling the story of the Spartan reformer Agis, says distinctly that the money of Sparta was chiefly in their hands; so that when Agis wished to bring about a more even division of property between rich and poor, he had first of all to convert his mother and grandmother that they might convert the others, "knowing well," Plutarch goes on, "that Spartan wives had always great power with their husbands, who would communicate to them state affairs more freely than they to the husbands the private business of the family." The reform failed, the women being even less disposed than the men to share and share alike; and Agis was put to death. Then his grandmother, "she having lived all her days in the highest repute," was given to the halter. Then the mother is sent into the death-chamber. Calmly she takes down the two bodies, composes them for burial, and then offers her neck to the noose, saying only, "I pray that it may redound to the good of Sparta." Agis' widow, being a great heiress, is forced to marry the son of the man who had brought about his death; but the tyrant's scheme fails here, for she, according to Plutarch, by her conversation so imbued Cleomenes with the ideas of Agis, that he, later, seeks a like reform. He, too, perished and the women of his house, condemned with him, show noble fortitude. They asked only, the historian

says, that they might be slain before their children. This was denied, whereupon, having wept over the bodies of the little ones and prepared them for burial, they yielded themselves calmly to the executioner. "So," Plutarch ends, "in the declining age of Sparta, they showed that women were no unequal rivals of men."

Sappho lived less than two hundred years before Aspasia; yet her name carries us into a different world; a world where freedom and culture were won by women only at the sacrifice of the sweet sanctities of home. The women of Athens of this period are, in their social life, divided into two classes: the married, living in almost oriental seclusion and having almost no intercourse with husband or his friends; and besides these, a class of unmarried, having by law no rights at all, but winning by wit, beauty, and culture a place and influence denied their quieter sisters. And of these Aspasia is the noblest type. She was of foreign birth, from that Melos which gave us our noblest Venus, and so could not by law wed an Athenian. But after Pericles had, with her full consent, parted from his wife—who, quite in modern fashion, married some one else—he gave her place, in everything but the legal form, to Aspasia. Their house became a meeting place for the most cultured society of Athens; and since Socrates went there constantly, even advising fathers to send their sons for education, since Xenophon went, accompanied by his wife, for the purpose of serious mental improvement, the tone can hardly have been common or licentious. She received ladies too, and seems to have discoursed much on the duties of married life. There is no proof, after her union with Pericles, of any want of dignity or morality. Plutarch speaks of his "wonderful affection" for her, saying, in illustration, that he never left the house without kissing her. In her companionship he found better solace and recreation than in the wine parties of men, then so common in Athens. As proof of her rare powers of mind, Plutarch adds that when, after Pericles' death, she took up with a man thought common and ignorant, he became soon, under her instruction, one of the leading men of the state.

The woman question was agitated in Athens even before Plato wrote his Republic, in which he advocates equal education and holds the modern theory that women have

the same capacities as men. These ideas were perhaps first gained from Aspasia and the circle of thinkers meeting at her house. It was in parody of them that Aristophanes wrote his plays against women; and the satire could hardly have been appreciated by a general audience if the theories ridiculed had not been a matter of common talk. In one of these plays women appear as peacemakers. They are tired of the long war between Athens and Sparta, and resolve to end it by getting hold of the citadel and the public treasury in it. The sinews of war being thus withdrawn, the two cities—in the play—are forced to make peace. In another play the women, under the lead of a strong-minded matron, take possession of the Assembly. The satire lies in this, that after claiming the right to legislate on the plea that, as women are more conservative than men, the old constitution will be safer in their hands, they no sooner get the power than they turn everything topsy-turvy in an excess of reforming zeal. But Aristophanes has given women a worse character than any other Greek poet. They are, according to him, profligate, drunken, stupid, lying, and thieving. But when one remembers the vile caricatures he gives us of Socrates and his contemporaries, one can take his satire of women more patiently. As Mahaffy says, "In estimating women of that time the Alcestis and Macaria of Euripides are too high and the women of Aristophanes too low."

Women played no active part in politics until the period of Macedonian supremacy and here again, as in Homer, it is only princesses who count. The women of the house of Macedon form a group whose power and influence in the state could not be despised. There is first Alexander's mother, Olympias, a woman of violent and cruel temper, with the virtues of a savage. During his life and afterwards she claimed royal power in Macedon, quarreled constantly with his regent, Antipater, and pursued him, on his campaigns, with complaining but haughty letters. To the last she had such influence over the Macedonian soldiery, that, to compass her death, it was needful to send relatives of the men she had slain—and they were many—to stone her. She died with dignity, "smoothing her gray hair and arranging her robes decently as she fell."

Her daughter, Cleopatra, was the most legitimate of all pretenders to the empire after

Alexander's death, and because of these claims she had the choice, as husband, of all the princes of the Greek world. She was twice married, maintained her rights by arms, and lived fifteen years in royal state in Sardis. She had the same bold character as Olympias, had not been secluded as other Greek girls, but educated with Alexander. Marriage with her was entirely a state affair, and when, over fifty, she fell into difficulties with Antigonos, she proposed to flee to Egypt and marry the young Ptolemy; but she had her mother's fate.

Her half-sister Kynane was an Amazon who preferred war to marriage. On Alexander's death she set out with her daughter Eurydice to get her share in the division of his empire; she forced her way into Asia and so moved the Macedonian soldiery by her boldness and eloquence that she had to be put out of the way secretly; and then the indignant army was only appeased by the marriage of Eurydice to another pretendant, Philip Aridaeus, Alexander's half-brother. The unlucky pair presently fell into the hands of Olympias, the relentless enemy of all her husband's children by other wives. She had the princes shot and sent the wifesword, halter, and hemlock to choose from. "But she, praying that Olympias might receive the same gifts, washed the wounds of her husband and then, without one word of complaint, hanged herself with her girdle."

There was a whole society of such princesses, clever, intriguing, leading a brilliant and voluptuous society and with great influence on the life of all classes. It was a time of war, and these were not women who held it excellence never to be mentioned for good or evil, but ruling princesses who could harangue troops, ride to battle at their head, and offer themselves to successful generals. They form a link between the women of Old Greece and the queens of the Eastern Empire such as Eudoxia and Theodora.

Eudoxia, the queen of Arcadius, is chiefly known to us because of her famous quarrel with St. Chrysostom, archbishop of Constantinople. It began in his very plain preaching against the vices of the court, and especially, it is said, the way in which the women did their hair. She procured his banishment; then a popular tumult forced her to recall him. But the quarrel continued, for experience had not taught the bishop to bridle his tongue and not speak evil of dignities.

He capped the climax of bitter sayings by openly comparing Eudoxia to Herodias. This was naturally more than the haughty temper of the empress could bear; and again she procured his banishment. But it is worth noting that in the long quarrel Chrysostom had women friends only less in rank than his persecutor. One of these, Salvina, was the official protector of the eastern churches at Arcadius' court, and received petitions from all over the empire as one most powerful with its ruler. Still another was Olympias, a woman of the highest rank, early left a widow, who had given herself and her vast wealth entirely to the service of the church. She had been the trusted counselor of Nectarius in all such matters, and when Chrysostom succeeded him, he gave her the same confidence. As his dear and trusted friend she managed all his worldly affairs; and as he had great wealth, used largely for charitable foundations, this was no little responsibility. When he went into exile, though surrounded at the last by bishops and officers of the church, it was to her that he gave his last instructions for its government in his absence. He died in exile three years later; but in the interim he maintained the closest correspondence with her and his letters are filled with like matters. That Christian women of rank had great power and influence in the fourth century, these letters clearly prove.

A year only after Chrysostom's death Arcadius followed him, and the government of the great empire for the next forty years was in the hands of his daughter Pulcheria [pulke'ri-a], first in the name of her young brother, and, after his death, in her own. At sixteen she had received the title of Augusta, and in her, for the first time, the East Roman Empire saw a woman at its head. Even at that age she had consecrated her virginity to God and, by her example, the palace was presently converted into a sort of monastery. But prayers and vigils never interfered with her care of public affairs and she ruled wisely and well. For her weak brother she chose as wife the daughter of a Greek philosopher, who had been trained by him in all the wisdom of the ancients. Athanasius was baptized into Eudoxia and gave her royal leisure to the composition of several political treatises. Unfortunately she aspired afterwards to put her theories of government into practice, and the quarrel for supremacy between the two women ended in her defeat and banishment.

A century later (527-65) came the most famous of the Greek empresses,—Theodora, wife of Justinian. She was the favorite pantomimic actress of Constantinople, equally celebrated for her beauty and her loose life when, at twenty, she captivated the heart of the heir to the throne,—a man of thirty-five, staid, businesslike, blameless. "No one ever remembered him young," it was said; and certainly no one expected such a folly on his part. But having chosen, neither the entreaties of his mother nor the threats of disinheritance from his uncle could move him. He made her later empress regent, in all things equal to himself—a position no emperor's wife before had held. The oath of allegiance from his subjects was taken to both; she corresponded with foreign ambassadors, and gave directions to the generals. Five years after her coronation in the greatest crisis of Justinian's reign—the famous war of the "Blues and Greens"—her courage saved his crown and perhaps his life. The child of the circus was braver than he, and even when the rebels were battering at the doors of the palace and his ministers counseled retreat she refused to fly. Val Prinsep has given us an ideal portrait of the empress as she may have looked that day when she rose haughty and resolute in the council of cowards and urged her husband to fight instead of flee. "Every man must die once," she said, "and for a king death is better than dethronement or exile. If you wish, O emperor, to save your life, there are your ships and the sea. But I agree with the old saying, 'Empire is the best winding sheet.'" Stung by her

*The "Blues" of Constantinople were a political party opposed to the "Greens" of Anastatius.

words he ordered a last assault and the rebels were driven back. Plainly Theodora was an extraordinary person, adding to beauty rare intellectual gifts, maintaining her dignity after marriage untouched by scandal; a woman born to rule and to shine. And, on the whole, her influence in the state seems to have been good. She gave much in alms, she was religious after a fashion, and, remembering her own youth, specially zealous in founding institutions to reclaim the lost of her sex.

Five hundred years later we come to Anna Comnena (1083-1148) the daughter of the emperor Alexius. Her father's favorite and companion, she was trained in poetry, science, and philosophy; she cultivated literature and sought the acquaintance of the most learned of the age. But, like the others, she was ambitious and intriguing. She did her best to persuade her fond father to disinherit her brother in favor of her own husband. Later she conspired to dethrone that brother, and when her husband shrank from the crimes involved, told him, "Nature had plainly mistaken their sex: *he* should have been the woman." The plot was discovered and though her brother—John the Good—pardoned her, she was exiled from the court. Then she employed her leisure in writing the *Alexiad*—a life of her father. It is a work of great historic value, but marred by prejudice and a pedantic style.

We are far from the ideals of the poets in these later women; but the fierce light that beats about a throne must be remembered in weighing them in History's balance. The domestic virtues rarely thrive in a palace, and absolute power is as fatal to character in women as in men.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[January 1.]

CONSCIENCE.

Herein do I exercise myself, to have always a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men."—Acts xxiv., 16.

IN treating of those early and important powers which are of such value in the right conduct of the journey of life, it is not enough to dwell upon the cardinal vir-

tues; we must not think only of the witnesses and the advocates, we must also remember the Judge. Nothing can be of greater moment for the true management of the journey of life, than that we should early learn to follow the Apostle's example, and exercise ourselves to keep "a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men." Certainly we can have no better guide in this than St. Paul. He may have made great mistakes; on one

memorable occasion he was certainly an abettor in a great crime; but whatever he did and whatever he said, no man can read his life and his words without feeling that whether his conscience was uninstructed or whether it was distorted, at least it was obeyed. We cannot be much mistaken in saying that a conscience very faulty indeed, but strictly submitted to, brought him right in the end.

There is an effort made in modern times, as I suppose it has been made more or less in all times, to account for conscience in some other way than the way in which it has been thought of by mankind in general and by the Christian Church. In fact, there are two ways of putting forward moral questions, and between them we have to choose. The one way is to assert the force of motives and impulses from within—to declare that there is a real and essential order among them; that there is to all of us the possibility of consciousness of this order; that this consciousness is the conscience which shows us where to place, how to use, how to obey or disobey, these ranks of impulses,—how to live a moral life. The other way is to look at the consequences of our conduct, to decide whether those consequences produce happiness, or I ought rather to say pleasure; if they do, to approve the course of conduct; if they do not, to ban it. The latter is the teaching of the utilitarian philosophy; the former is the teaching of the Christian Church.

The truth is that to act upon the guidance of the latter theory may be sagacious, but it is a matter of pure reason and has nothing moral about it at all. The former course has nothing whatever to do with consequences; it arises from an inner guidance of duty, and it takes its force and meaning of sanctity from the absolute rule of right, which is the all-holy will of God. The difference is worlds asunder; it would be ridiculous for a man who was only guiding his life by a calculation of the benefit of possible consequences to say, like the Apostle, "Herein do I exercise myself, to have always a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men."

[January 8.]

There are certain facts about conscience which no man can deny.

(1) Whatever it may mean, it gives us the feeling of being in the presence of One who is higher than ourselves. We are not here being merely judged by ourselves; we are being

judged by another. Of course, it is open to those who contradict the Christian's belief about conscience to deny that our faculties are to be trusted. It is equally open to the Christian to answer, "In that case there is no ground for placing any faith in them, when they supply to us scientific and physical knowledge." This really settles the question. It is nonsense, and we know that it is nonsense, to commit intellectual suicide. We have a sense of duty; we know that we ought to follow one course of action to avoid another; what we ought, we owe, therefore we owe it to some one; and the voice which speaks in us, condemning or approving, Right Reason teaches us, is the voice of Him to whom the debt is due. Conscience has, then, all the authority which belongs to a voice outside ourselves, ruling our inmost motives and thoughts and conduct according to an eternal law of right. My brothers, to keep "a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men," is at least to recognize that there is a voice of authority from without, which speaks to us—under different conditions if you like, with varying modifications of clearness if you please—but which does speak to us, and to deliberately disobey which is a very grave thing indeed.

(2) There is, as it seems to me, another characteristic of conscience. It is, if I may so say, a personal possession, and a personal possession which concerns itself with the deepest things in our nature. It stands as a living witness, so to speak, within us, of the magnificence and supremacy of goodness, above all other subjects of human thought and all other objects of human ambition. It does not reprove us for mistakes or failures in matters where only taste or opinion come in. It finds no fault with me if I do not achieve a stanza of poetry, or the expression of a musical phrase, or the color of a sunset in a water-color sketch, or the turn of a sentence in a literary work, entirely to my esthetic satisfaction. No; it goes into my innermost being, and it deals exclusively with what is right and wrong, in the real sense of those tremendous words, in the innermost sanctuary of life. It is, therefore, a terribly real fact, account for it as we may. Men may form various theories to account for its existence; they may neglect or oppose it; but they can no more get rid of it than they can get rid of themselves.

It witnesses as to the character of conduct,

but it extends the definition of conduct over the whole area of the inner life; it gives the lie, therefore, to all moral theories which measure the value, the moral value, of actions by their consequences, for it goes boldly into the sanctuary of motive and gives its judgment upon that.

[January 15.]

Whilst the whole question of conscience is one of extreme solemnity, it would not be right to forget what I may call its sunny side.

Holy Scripture dwells in many places on this aspect of the subject; but we do not require to go to Holy Scripture to know that there is a real and solid blessing in a good conscience. It is of this that St. John speaks when he says, "Beloved, if our heart condemn us not, then have we confidence toward God." It is to this that our Blessed Lord doubtless alludes when he says, "Who-soever cometh to Me and heareth My sayings, and doeth them, I will show you to whom he is like; he is like unto a man which built a house and digged deep and laid the foundations on a rock; and when the flood arose, the stream beat vehemently upon that house, and could not shake it, for it was founded upon a rock." It is this also which St. Paul feels so strongly when he says in the text, that he made efforts "to always have a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men."

But experience teaches us this, and, it has been the general feeling of mankind, that as the pangs of an evil conscience are more terrible than acute bodily pain, so the comfort of a good conscience is a source of the purest and most lasting joy. It is not a matter of mere feeling; in an upright nature, it becomes stronger with increasing years, and in proportion to the sincerity and reality and continuance of our obedience, it brings increasing strength and peace. It has been truly said, that there is no example that we know of in this matter more thorough than St. Paul himself. I may quote from a great teacher who draws attention to this. "His manner," he says, "of speaking of his own spiritual condition on writing to Timothy, his friend, close on his death, differs from that which he adopted, years before, writing to the whole Church of the Corinthians." His earlier tone was, "I keep under my body, and bring it into subjection: lest that by any means, when I have preached to others, I myself should be

a castaway"; and again, "I know nothing against myself, yet am I not hereby justified"; and again, some years later speaking to the Philippians, "I follow after, if that I may apprehend that for which also I am apprehended of Christ Jesus. I count not myself to have apprehended; but this one thing I do, forgetting those things which are behind, and reaching forth toward those things which are before, I press toward the mark for the prize of my high calling in Christ Jesus." And is it ever possible to forget those triumphant and pathetic words which, later still, he wrote from Rome, when, alone and longing to see his beloved Timothy—whom in fact he was never to see again—he had his eye fixed, with that quiet manly steadfastness which always characterized him, and in no way detracted from the almost womanly tenderness of that most loving and most fatherly of hearts—with all the intense yearning that was his, to see just once again the son he so dearly loved, he had, I say, his eye fixed upon the end and meanings of his journey of life? "I am now," he cries from the cave beneath the Capitol or from the prison of the Palatine, "I am now ready to be offered, and the time of my departure is at hand. I have fought a good fight, I have finished my course, I have kept the faith: henceforth there is laid up for me a crown of righteousness, which the Lord, the righteous Judge, shall give me at that day: and not to me only, but unto all them also that love His appearing." The glorious words have the ring of a real assurance; nothing hysterical or sensational, but the calm and growing conviction of a serious character who had set himself, from the first, to keep "a conscience void of offense," and consequently had the splendid reward of a great obedience.

For what had he done? To begin with, he had a faulty conscience—faulty, because insufficiently instructed—but so far as he saw, he followed; so far as he knew, he did; and it led him right at last, as it leads us all, if we have strength to follow his example. He disciplined and trained it; he examined it and listened to its verdict; when new light flashed upon it, he followed the light; he was a supreme example of that truth upon which I have insisted before now.

"To him that loves the light, a clearer dawn shall rise anew;
And he that does his best, leaves naught undone
that man can do."

[January 22.]

There is another fact about conscience which is of extreme interest—interest, I mean, of course, of a practical, but also of a speculative kind. I have referred to this before, I insist upon it again. It witnesses to a future life. It witnesses it in a strange way. Conscience, when the soul first begins to sin, is a severe judge and gives a sentence to a heavy penalty; but each time that the soul is brought to its trial, it gets on terms of easier familiarity with the process of the court. We have a wonderful gift of self-absolution. We plead mitigating circumstances with an airy grace, and at last we may succeed, as it has been well said, to such an extent as to contrive “to corrupt the whole procedure, to suborn the judge, and to turn the very chamber of justice into a council room of guilty conspiracy.” In this way we may escape for the moment from the retribution of conscience. Sin becomes habitual; the man hardens himself against the reproofs of his higher being. Conscience is unable to do everything that it ought to do in the way of punishment, and if it stood alone, then the worst of men would escape with complete impunity. But it does not stand alone. In this case it points to a future, it speaks a law of righteousness which has been infringed and which it will not allow the soul to forget, but the entire execution of which it can no longer effect. It reminds us at least that there is a future where the law of righteousness shall be vindicated. Death is no “final discharge”; there is, conscience at least says this, a righteous judgment beyond the grave. Is it possible then to be too careful of, too faithful toward, too loyal and obedient to conscience in the right conduct of the journey of life?

It was natural enough that St. Paul, with his clear and sympathetic view of human nature, should speak thus on the subject of conscience in relation to himself. What he practiced himself was the personal application of the doctrine which he held about others. In speaking of the law which had been given to the Jews, St. Paul taught that it had been—except in its deeper moral aspect—abolished. But he speaks of the law of conscience, however feeble or liable to mistake, or dimmed with shadow, still so far as it went, God's voice for the heathen world. And when he is speaking about the Jewish converts at Rome, who still clung to all sorts

of Jewish customs—he recommends forbearance and brotherly love toward them on the part of others. If a man acted in opposition to his conviction of what was right, for him such action was sin. Conscience, then, according to the teaching of the Apostle, though it might make a mistake in the practical application of a truth or principle, so far as it goes, must be a law binding upon each. It is it which records its judgment of the conduct of its possessor. It pronounces authoritatively that some things are in themselves right, and good, and just: and others in themselves evil, unjust, and wrong. It behaves in a magisterial manner, and approves or condemns with a voice of authority.

It is a serious thing, therefore, to remember that it may be forcibly stopped, and that its strength is by no means always equal to the strength and appetites, passions which find it an inconvenient monitor, and which it judges with unhesitating determination. “To preside and govern from the very economy and constitution of man,” says one of the greatest of English theologians, “belongs to it. Had it strength, as it has right; had it power, as it has manifest authority, it would absolutely govern the world.”*

That it does not govern the world is too sadly plain. We all acknowledge how highly we esteem a conscientious man; and yet a “political conscience,” a “commercial conscience,” and to use a phrase bandied about in quite recent times—whether justly or unjustly, and certainly unjustly toward some good men,—a “nonconformist conscience,” is a very different thing from what we understand by the conscience of a good Christian.

[January 29.]

It is our duty, then, to care for our conscience.

(1) It should be carefully instructed. It is important for this purpose, from earliest days, to teach the young the meaning and force of moral principles. It is important also to teach them the truths of the Catholic faith, to teach them in fact the Catechism. Truth is not the easiest thing in the world; in order to see it with clear eye, and to follow it with ready mind, we need an instructed conscience.

(2) It is our duty to appeal to conscience. In the training of the young, the wakening

* Bishop Butler.

of the conscience, the putting it on the alert, the teaching it to exercise its legitimate authority, depends very much, we may be well assured, on the care taken by parents or teachers, not to exercise capriciously or vexatiously their rightful power, but to make the exercise of their authority be felt to re-echo with a right ring to the authority of the conscience within.

(3) It is also an important duty to examine the conscience. It will play the part of a witness as well as of a judge, and if we "exercise" it, and if we listen to it in a serious, respectful temper, it will let us know with sufficient distinctness how far we are walking, how far we are failing to walk, according to the rule and law of God's commandments. It is true that if that were all a Christian could do, then conscience would do little else for us in the journey of life than terrify and condemn; but no Christian can forget that, like the Law in the Jewish

Church, so conscience is a schoolmaster to bring us to Christ. The whole of the penitential system of the Church; the comfort of confession and absolution, that is, the seeking for, and application of, the Precious Blood;—these at once use conscience in its rightful office, and also relieve the soul of the burden which it must lay upon it.

Blessed are they who "exercise" themselves like the Apostle to "have always a conscience void of offense." Blessed, who listen in time to its warnings, and try to direct their footsteps in accordance with its witness; these will have "songs in the night," will be advancing toward "Mount Zion . . . and flowing together for the goodness of the Lord, where they shall not sorrow any more at all!" But blessed also they who, when accused by conscience, do not disregard the warning, but bring the burden of their sin, and lay it at the feet of Christ.—*W. J. Knox Little, M.A.*

TELEPATHY.

BY RICHARD HODGSON, LL. D.

Secretary A. B. S. P. R.

THE subject of this article is the ability of one mind to impress or be impressed by another mind otherwise than through the recognized channels of sense. It is to the fact of such impression that the term *telepathy* has been applied. The word is derived from two Greek words, *tele*, at a distance, and *pathos*, feeling, and it has its analogues in such words as telegraph, telephone, etc. Its present use however, is far wider than its original etymological signification. "We began by restricting this word to cases where the distance through which transference of impressions took place far exceeded the scope of the recognized senses. But there is great convenience in extending the term to *all* cases of impressions conveyed without any affection of the recipient's recognized senses, whatever may be his actual distance from the agent."* The owner of the mind impressing is called the *agent*, and the owner of the mind impressed is called the *percipient*.

Now I do not propose, in the present brief

article, to make any attempt to prove that telepathy is a fact in nature, but rather to explain the various applications of the term in psychical science. What is the theory of telepathy? How did it originate? How far does it extend? Such are the questions before us. But here I fancy that some of my readers will be likely to exclaim, "I supposed that telepathy was the same as thought transference." This in a certain sense is true. The exact relations between the two terms will appear as we proceed. But what is thought transference? We may begin by pointing out what it is not.

Exhibitions have been frequently given, both publicly and privately, of what has been called thought reading, or mind reading, which should no more be classified under this head than our communications to one another by ordinary language, or by signs such as those used by the deaf and dumb or the blind.

Many of my readers have doubtless taken part in the so-called "willing" game, which is usually conducted somewhat in the following manner, and has often formed a favorite

* "Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research," Vol. II., p. 118.

amusement at evening parties. One member of the group leaves the room, and after the others have agreed upon some act to be performed, enters blindfolded. One or two persons of the group place their hands gently on the shoulders of the percipient, who is told to become as passive as possible, while all the others in the room "will" him to perform the act agreed upon. Sometimes contact is established by holding the hands of the percipient, or by clasping lightly the neck or the waist. The percipient moves about the room, and frequently succeeds in performing the desired act.

Careful experiment has shown that the success achieved under these and similar circumstances is to be attributed to the involuntary muscular guidance of the persons touching the percipient, although the percipient himself may often be just as unconscious of receiving any indications in this way, as the agents are unconscious of giving them. The Rev. C. H. Sugden, in an article contributed to Part IV. of the "Proceedings of the English S. P. R.,"* describing the experiments made by himself, says, they "included the discovery of persons thought of in the audience, and articles worn by them; the finding of pins and other hidden articles; reading the numbers of banknotes, both by means of tickets with the ten digits printed on them and placed on a table, and by writing the numbers on a blackboard; the localization of pains; following a track chalked out on the floor, and other similar tests."

In all these experiments he relied on muscular indications, and in some cases he found it sufficient to be connected with the agent by a stick or a piece of thin wire. Where the percipient is not blindfolded, additional information may be acquired from the almost imperceptible indications unconsciously given by the looks or other movements of the persons present.

Of the same nature as the above, are the public performances given by the late Mr. Irving Bishop, Mr. Stuart Cumberland, and others, extending even to the reproduction of the grouping of several persons as actors in some imaginary drama. To exhibitions of this sort the title of muscle reading has been most appropriately given. Those who have not practiced experiments in muscle reading will naturally be surprised at the delicacy of

the guidance that may be offered by varying sensations of pressure and resistance without any conscious co-operation on the part of the agent.

We turn, however, to a different class of cases where the percipient has no contact with the agent, and where all communication with any of the recognized channels of sense is apparently excluded. Accounts of the most important of these have been published in our Proceedings, to which I refer the reader for the detailed description of the precautions taken in the experiments.

Some of the most interesting series of experiments were made with two young ladies, Miss R. and Miss E., about twenty years of age at the time, and employed by Mr. Malcolm Guthrie, a partner in one of the large drapery establishments of the city of Liverpool. Various persons were found to be successful as agents with these subjects, and the hypothesis of fraud on the part of the agent becomes absolutely excluded. At first, contact was used, but in later experiments it was discontinued, and the most striking successes were obtained without any contact whatever. The earliest experiments were made with simple shapes cut out of brightly colored ribbons, and exhibited upon a black background, also with cards and letters of the alphabet, then with objects and short words. The percipient was blindfolded, and the object placed "in such a position that it could not be seen by her, even if she were not so incapacitated for observation."

In later experiments made to test the transference of diagrams, the most satisfactory method of operating was as follows: The percipient is blindfolded and seated while the agent draws some figure in another room, and incloses it in a folio. He then returns and opens the folio on a small wooden stand placed between himself and the percipient. The agent then concentrates his attention upon the drawing with the view of impressing it on the mind of the percipient. The percipient states when she is ready to draw, and the agent then closes the folio; the percipient removes the bandage and makes the reproduction.

It must not be understood that these "subjects" were invariably successful in reproducing the object thought of. Thus, out of a total list comprising a first series of 118 experiments with diagrams, without contact, there were 66 instances estimated as com-

*The letters S. P. R. stand for Society for Psychical Research.

plete successes, 23 as partial successes, 23 as misdescriptions; while in 6 cases nothing was perceived. Besides this there were, as Mr. Guthrie tells us, 40 diagrams for experimental evenings with strangers, in series of sixes and sevens, all misdrawn. These were not included in the list.

Other experiments were also tried, in the localization of pains, and the impressions of tastes and smells, and the transference of imagined tunes, but nearly all of these were made under contact, and cannot be regarded as of much value in the direction of establishing thought transference proper, under the conditions described.

Various other records of series of trials have been received by the Society for Psychological Research from persons of integrity, experimenting for their own satisfaction, and these appear to confirm the conclusion that thought transference is a reality, though in our ignorance of the rationale we should be careful not to use this expression with a too literal meaning. As Mr. W. H. Pickering has said in commenting on a series of experiments made by himself and a friend (No. 3 Proc. of Am. S. P. R., p. 115):

"I think that thought transference is as good a name for the phenomenon as any, until some logical explanation of it has been discovered. In this sense of the word (unperceived physical or mental connection), I think we have proved the reality of thought transference as completely as it is possible for a single pair of observers to do; and it now only remains for a sufficient number of other people to show that they can obtain the same results, in order to have the reality of the phenomenon admitted as one of the well ascertained facts of human experience."

The first step, then, toward the general theory of telepathy was reached by definite experiments in thought transference. The second step resulted from the detailed consideration of the narratives of remarkable experiences which were received by the Literary Committee of the S. P. R. Instances of these were given in the first report of that committee, December 9, 1882,—and I quote several of them. The first is from Mr. J. L. Keulemans:

"One morning, not long ago, while engaged with some very easy work, I saw in my mind's eye a little wicker basket, containing five eggs, two very clean, of a more than usually elongated oval and of a yellowish hue, one very round,

plain white, but smudged all over with dirt; the remaining two bore no peculiar marks. I asked myself what that insignificant but sudden image could mean. I never think of similar objects. But that basket remained fixed in my mind, and occupied it for some moments. About two hours later I went into another room for lunch. I was at once struck with the remarkable similarity between the eggs standing in the egg cups on the breakfast table and those two very long ones I had in my imagination previously seen. 'Why do you keep looking at those eggs so carefully?' asked my wife; and it caused her great astonishment to learn from me how many eggs had been sent by her mother half an hour before. She then brought up the remaining three; there was the one with the dirt on it, and the basket, the same I had seen. On further inquiry, I found that the eggs had been kept together by my mother-in-law, that she had placed them in the basket and thought of sending them to me; and, to use her own words, 'I did of course think of you at that moment.' She did this at ten in the morning, which (as I know from my regular habits) must have been just the time of my impression."

The next case is from the well-known writer, Mr. John Addington Symonds:

"I was a boy in the sixth form at Harrow; and, as head of Mr. Rendall's house, had a room to myself. It was in the summer of 1858. I woke about dawn, and felt for my books upon a chair between the bed and the window; when I knew that I must turn my head the other way, and there between me and the door stood Dr. Maclean, dressed in a clergyman's black clothes. He bent his sallow face a little toward me and said, 'I am going a long way—take care of my son.' While I was attending to him I suddenly saw the door in the place where Dr. Maclean had been. Dr. Maclean died that night (at what hour I cannot precisely say) at Clifton. My father, who was a great friend of his, was with him. I was not aware that he was more than usually ill. He was a chronic invalid."

The Rev. R. B. F. Elrington, vicar of Lower Brixham, a friend of one of us, vouches for the fact that the following occurrence in his parish was described hours before the arrival of the news confirming the fears which it occasioned and he certified to the good character of the witnesses.

"In the early spring of 1881, Mrs. Barnes, of Brixham, Devonshire, whose husband was at sea, dreamt that his fishing-vessel was run into by a steamer. Their boy was with him, and she called out in her dream, 'Save the boy!' At

this moment another son sleeping in the next room rushed into hers, crying out, 'Where 's father?' She asked what he meant, when he said he had distinctly heard his father come upstairs and kick with his heavy boots against the door, as he was in the habit of doing when he returned from sea. The boy's statement and her own dream so alarmed the woman that early next morning she told Mrs. Strong and other neighbors of her fears. News afterwards came that her husband's vessel had been run into by a steamer, and that he and the boy were drowned."

The general conclusion of the committee at that time was that "the analogy of thought transference, which seemed to offer such a convenient logical start, cannot be pressed too far. Our phenomena break through any attempt to group them under heads of transferred impression; and we venture to introduce the words *telæsthesia* and *telepathy* to cover all cases of impression received at a distance without the normal operation of the recognized sense organs." At a later stage, the meaning of the word *telepathy* was extended, as I have already indicated in the passage quoted at the beginning of this article, so as to include even the simplest experiments in thought transference. The theory of telepathy, then, is applied to two classes of cases, experimental and spontaneous. The experiments may be of such a simple form as the transference of a diagram or a number on a playing-card, where the percipient obtains merely a mental image of the object,—or they may involve a fully developed hallucination, where the object thought of is apparently externalized in space, as in cases like that of Mr. S. H. B. ("Phantasms of the Living," Vol. I., pp. 104—109), who three times caused the apparition of himself to appear to friends. Similarly the spontaneous experiences may range from the transference of a simple sensation in waking life or in a dream up to the most complex forms of emotional and motor impression, and finally to complete auditory or tactile or visual externalization taking the form of hallucination.

For example, Mr. William Tudor, of Auburndale, Mass., writes to me on July 11, 1890:

"Late in the evening of Monday, March 17, near midnight, my nephew, Frederic Tudor, Jr., fell in front of an electric car going to Cambridge, was dragged some distance and so badly injured that for a time his life was in doubt, though he

recovered with the loss of a foot. My wife heard of the accident on Tuesday afternoon and was much distressed all the night of Tuesday and quite restless and wakeful.

"At this time I was in Gainesville, Florida, having important business there in connection with land purchases. On the night of Tuesday I went to bed rather early in a calm state of mind. I slept soundly, as I usually do. About midnight, as I should judge, I heard my wife call my name quite distinctly and waked instantly broad awake. I sat up in bed, but soon remembering where I was fell asleep and waked no more till morning. The next day the incident of the night made me quite uneasy, also during the following day, and as I was obliged to leave on the afternoon of Friday for a rough journey in the country I telegraphed to my wife to know what was the matter. I usually receive a letter from home every day and on these days no letter arrived, which added to my uneasiness. No answer was received to my first telegram for the very good reason that it was never delivered. I was obliged to start, however, in the afternoon of this day, Friday the 21st, and in the morning of the 22nd, from a small town called New Branford, sent another telegram, of which the following is the substance:—'Shall be gone three days. What has happened? Answer Branford.' I had a strong impression that something serious had occurred, that my wife was possibly ill, or some of the children were ill, or that some accident or death had occurred to a near relation, not however involving my immediate family."

I have also received quotations from Mr. Tudor's letters written at the time, and a confirmatory statement from Mrs. Tudor. Here we should suppose a telepathic communication between Mrs. Tudor and her husband; and similarly where the apparition of a person dying is seen by a distant friend at the time of the death, we suppose that the dying person's mind affected the mind of the percipient, and produced the hallucinatory figure.

Thus far we have been considering telepathic action between minds of living human beings. This is the main topic of the large two-volumed work entitled "*Phantasms of the Living*," by Messrs. Gurney, Myers, and Podmore. In that work many cases were cited as instances of telepathy in which the percipient's experience occurred *after* the actual death of the supposed agent. In such cases, as Mr. Gurney writes: "We had to suppose that the telepathic transfer took place just before, or exactly at, the moment of

death; but that the impression remained latent in the percipient's mind, and only after an interval emerged into his consciousness, whether as waking vision or as dream or in some other form." In the classification adopted in "Phantasms of the Living," the limit of such latency was regarded as twelve hours; that is to say, authenticated cases of phantasms experienced by persons more than twelve hours after the death of the supposed agents, were grouped provisionally not among phantasms of the living but among phantasms of the dead, upon which subject several articles have already appeared in our Proceedings. Now, as the writers pointed out in "Phantasms of the Living" (Vol. I., p. 512), "as our telepathic theory is a psychical one, and makes no physical assumptions, it would be perfectly applicable (though the mere name perhaps would be inappropriate) to the conditions of disembodied existence," and, as a matter of fact, Mr. Myers has actually extended the conception of telepathy to communication between the living and the dead. He says (Proceedings S. P. R., Vol. VI., p. 63),

"I believe that telepathy—the transference of thought through other than sensory channels—exists both as between embodied and disembodied spirits. I hold that there is a continuous series of manifestations of such power, beginning with thought transference experiments and hypnotism at a distance, proceeding through experimental apparitions and apparitions coincident

with crisis or death, and ending with apparitions after death; results, in my view, of the continued exercise of the same energy by the spirits of the departed."

Here I must close. There are, I need scarcely say, many fundamental questions in connection with the telepathic theory which I have not mentioned at all. My aim has not been to prove telepathy, nor even to indicate, except very indirectly, the nature of its proof, but rather to explain its significance. One of the most important questions is the determination of how far the spontaneous experiences can be accounted for by mere chance coincidence. The results of the late Mr. Gurney's "Census of Hallucinations" conducted several years ago, was to demonstrate, from the statistics which he accumulated, that chance could by no means account for the authenticated experiences received. A much larger census has been made in connection with the International Congress of Experimental Psychology, where Professor Henry Sidgwick, on the basis of seventeen thousand answers, concluded that "the actual proportion of coincidental to noncoincidental cases, after all deduction for possible sources of error, was in fact such that the probability against the supposition of chance coincidence became enormous, on the assumption of ordinary accuracy on the part of informants." Professor Sidgwick's detailed report will probably be published early next year in Part XXIV. of our Proceedings.

GREEK PAPYRI.*

BY PROF. J. P. MAHAFFY.

Of Trinity College, Dublin.

ANYONE who studies the ordinary papers noticed a few months ago considerable excitement among the learned, owing to the reappearance of long-lost Greek texts in Egypt. These have been acquired from the natives, either by explorers or by museum agents; and now our classical literature is being constantly enriched by scraps, and sometimes even by books, which our fathers in Greek learning longed to read, but were lost, all but the titles or some stray reference in a later Greek author. The most

signal of these recent acquisitions is the book called Aristotle's "Constitution of Athens," which is now in the British Museum, and of which the recent publication has evoked a storm of criticism and floods of comment and emendation.

I am going to tell the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN something about these discoveries, and how it comes that these books have lasted so long, and still are preserved to the present day. It so happens that I have a good right to tell about these things, for no one else has worked harder at this kind of discovery. For nine months back I have been

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

daily separating, cleaning, deciphering these documents; the Aristotle indeed I may have had in my hand in Egypt three years ago, when a roll was offered to me at a price I could not afford to pay. But the British Museum authorities showed it to me months ago, when its discovery was a profound secret, and recently I have been poring over the autotype facsimile. But next to this, far the most important recent "finds" have actually appeared from under my hand. It was Mr. Sayce who with me examined and deciphered the scraps of the *An-ti'o-pe*, a lost play of Euripides, recently published in *Hermathene* (the journal of Trinity College, Dublin). It is to me that Mr. Petrie has intrusted the reading of many other documents, which will presently see the light, and every day at present, I am cleaning, separating, reading scraps of old waste papers used by the Greeks in the third century B. C. So a brief record of my work cannot but interest American readers.

But what is papyrus? It is obvious enough that our word *paper* has something to do with it, but though the one was the writing material of the old world, and the other of the new (historically speaking) the manufacture was widely different. It appears indeed from recent researches into the material used in the fifth century by the Christian people (Copts) in Egypt, that the actual manufacture of paper from rags was known and practiced. But this was because papyrus had grown scarce, and we are going to speak of documents far earlier than the Christian era. Papyrus then is a plant well known in the greenhouses of Europe, and probably of America, with very tall stalks—perhaps eight or ten feet high—and on the top of each a large tuft of fiber that looks like hair. It is a water plant, and still survives in the marshes of the Anapus, near Syracuse in Sicily. But in the marshes of the Delta, which were once its home, it is no longer to be found. These tall round stalks are not more than one inch and a half in diameter, generally less, and are of a pithy substance, which admits of being sliced with a sharp knife into very thin layers, which are nevertheless tolerably tough. These layers, if allowed to dry, shrivel up, and from being white, turn yellow. But the Egyptians laid a number of these thin shreds or layers close together, like the planks of a floor. They then covered them with a similar layer at

right angles, and laid a heavy weight upon them. The moisture of the plant seems to be viscous enough to make all the surfaces adhere closely without any foreign substance such as gum being used. So then when the double layer was thoroughly pressed and dried, it came out a smooth, fine-grained sheet, admirably adapted for writing or even printing. This was the papyrus of the Egyptians of which I have separated scores of pages, variously colored from coarse brown to delicate buff colors. It was made up in very long rolls—yards long—and the writing was in columns side by side upon it. The reader kept unrolling toward the right and rolling up on his left, so as to get a new column before him when he required it.

All the world went to Egypt for this manufacture, as the charred rolls recovered from the ruins of Herculaneum under the lava of Vesuvius testify. It was the paper of the ancients. In Roman days Strabo tells us that the people of the Delta, who had the monopoly, prevented the spread of its cultivation, presently neglected it themselves, and so it ultimately gave way to parchment, or sheepskin prepared for the purpose at Pergamus, of which name *parchment* is a corruption. In the climate of Egypt this material lasts forever, and the ink on it is such that it even stands being steeped in water without being effaced.

But where in Egypt are these rolls and records lying, and how are they found after so many centuries? It is only now that exploring is being systematically carried on in the country; it is only now that the natives have learned the money value of these apparently insignificant rolls. When first found, they were burnt, or pulled in pieces; even now the natives cut them in two, when two men cannot agree about the possession of them. Thus many priceless books have been miserably lost. They had been originally preserved in two ways: (1) documents of importance were sealed up in earthen pots, which were the usual receptacle for all valuables in a country with plenty of clay, and very little wood; (2) it was a habit to lay with the dead (at least in Coptic days) their favorite books. Thus Mr. Petrie found two years ago a coffin containing a young lady, whose rich hair was pillowed upon a manuscript, part of Homer's *Iliad*. The head with its hair and the roll which served as its pillow may now be seen in the Ash-

molean Museum at Oxford. And doubtless to the former method, Mr. Petrie while superintending excavations at Fä-vä'rä saw two workmen come upon an earthen pot, which was taken up with care, and contained, quite complete, two long and splendidly written contracts of the fifth century A. D. They are now set between sheets of glass and preserved at Oxford.

But quite apart from these orderly and safe ways of laying up valuable books, there is (3) a very different source which has recently given us curious results. When wood failed them for their coffins, they made up from scraps of old paper glued together a sort of frame for the dead, which followed the outline of the figure, and had a face and ornaments painted on the paper surface. This sort of coffin was as hard and durable as our *papier mâché*. In gathering together waste papyrus for this purpose, the coffin makers took all kinds of material, much of it covered with writing. When, then, you wash off the thick coat of white limy mud, which was painted in various colors, and come down to the surface made of papyrus, you find endless scraps of household accounts, private letters, rough entries, and here and there an official document, a proclamation, a will, at last even a bit of a book of Euripides or Plato. But all this is in small fragments deliberately pulled in pieces for its last purpose. It was since Mr. Petrie again discovered this source of old documents, which Letronne had noted sixty years ago, that public attention has turned in this direction. Mr. Petrie was not only gifted with the insight of genius; he was also very lucky. For even as Letronne complained that in the many cases he had examined he could find nothing but private accounts, so in the many cases, or fragments of cases, intrusted to me by Mr. Petrie for examination, I have found hundreds of scraps of accounts both in demotic* and in Greek, a stray fragment in hieratic† or hieroglyphics, but as yet only the smallest and rarest classical writing. But I am not yet done,

and any day I may find something to match the Antiope and the Plato.

When we look back on the treasures already acquired in this way, the earliest in the list are the charred rolls of Herculaneum, which the traveler may now see in the Museum of Naples. The process of unrolling these, or indeed any old papyri, is most tedious and difficult. When this substance becomes dry, it is exceedingly brittle, and any attempt to unroll one of these volumes (this very word points to the original book-form) ends in the whole thing going into small chips. The Naples people invented a very ingenious machine, which keeps the roll revolving very slowly upon a sticky surface, so that the outside of it adheres to the surface, and so the inner and written side is laid down flat and safe. In the case of the later rolls found in Egypt, which were not charred, more moisture has been found, enough to make the material soft and pliable.

Unfortunately the matter of the books found at Herculaneum was not equal to the expectations of the learned world. Facts on Epicurean philosophy, mostly written by a tenth-rate man called Philodemus, the contemporary of Cicero, and chaplain (if I may call him so) of Piso, make so large a portion of it, that we fancy he must have lived in the house himself, and written these rolls with his own hand. The reader who possesses my "Greek World Under Roman Sway" will find his name in the index, and turn to the strange account of his life given by Cicero. The rolls found in Egypt have been more various and more valuable. In the first place, there are two rolls in Egyptian writing, whether hieroglyphics (pictures), hieratic, or demotic (cursive) which are sometimes historical, and philosophical, as well as religious, and have given us much knowledge about old Egyptian life.

Among the Greek books several portions of Homer have turned up, strange to say, worse texts, and with more mistakes, than the best mediæval manuscripts which are perhaps eight hundred years younger. But these last were copied by scholars, whereas the papyri were copied by slaves, and for private use, so that the peculiarities of the local dialect, the Egyptian brogue, comes out in the Greek. Constantly we find both sides used, as the people seem to have employed every scrap for their accounts, which were endless and minute. Thus the Aristotle, of

*A certain mode of writing used in Egypt for epistolary and business purposes from about the seventh century. In a general sense the word means popular, pertaining to the people.

†[Hi-er-at'ic.] Of sacred or priestly origin, used in a specific sense of this kind of Egyptian writing. It consists of abridged forms of hieroglyphics adopted by the Egyptian priests for convenience and expedition in their records.

which I have spoken, has on the other side a set of private accounts, dated in the eleventh year of Emperor Vespasian (79 A. D.), which seem to have been older than the book on the other side, so that here men were in such want of material that they took the back of their account books for a far nobler purpose.

But even the private letters, when we can get one complete, and the legal documents are very interesting. The letters are all (so far as I have found them) written in very large clear writing, which seems to have been a matter of courtesy with these people. St. Paul says at the end of one of his Epistles: "See with what large characters I have subscribed this letter with my own hand"—the A. V.* is not accurate—and this may have allusion to the only habit I found prevalent in letters of the third century B. C. In other respects, too, the others are exceedingly polite; the kindest inquiries of sons after their fathers, of friends after friends;

then details about farming and merchandise, and requests that something may be sent to the writer, in one case, notes on the Iliad of Homer. But unfortunately I have generally found these letters mutilated, and then the sense is very hard to restore.

On the other hand a batch of wills which I found is full of fixed formulæ, so that a fragment can often be filled up from other pieces. The testators were soldiers settled in Fayoum; so were the witnesses described, with their stars and marks, all strangers brought in from the Greek world, settled on the land of the unfortunate fellahs. They make their wills "being of sound mind and good understanding," and leave their property, apparently without restraint, to wife, son, daughter, or even stranger. The dates on these documents are quite precise (235-22 B. C.) and very valuable in showing us what the handwriting of that remote age really was. But if I once plunge into details, I do not know how I shall ever terminate my article. Perhaps I may revert to this topic again, when more has been discovered.

* Authorized Version.

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

BY JAMES KNAPP REEVE.

IF the heat of the sun should be withdrawn from the world the cessation of all life would immediately follow. A calamity only second to this would result if the production of coal should suddenly cease, while we are unprepared, as now, with any substitute for it. The consequences would be less drastic, to be sure, yet so serious as to overturn almost our whole system of domestic and commercial life and usages, and to turn back the wheels of progress further than can be easily reckoned.

It is wholly within bounds to say that the world could be deprived of no single article—aside from the organic elements which go to produce life—the loss of which would bring about such startling results as would come from the total deprivation of coal. Although we are yet, in America, well within the first century of its use, it has become thus indispensable for reasons apparent to the most careless observer.

It is, first, the basis for our motive power. It is the stored energy which gives us the

means of communication and transportation not only between the states but from one continent to the other. Second, it is the basis upon which rest almost our entire manufacturing industries, giving the power which drives the wheels and spindles of our mills and factories. Third, it is our chief basis for artificial light, for without it neither illuminating gas nor any large development of electrical lighting would be possible. Fourth, it is the key to much of our domestic comfort, being the household fuel for the larger portion of our population, and growing daily in its relative importance for this use by the increasing scarcity of wood.

Another way of stating the relative importance of coal is to say simply that the growth of civilization has been and is coordinate with its consumption. Proofs in support of this statement are so plain that they need not even be cited; and it would be no more difficult to show that it has been the most considerable factor in the remarkable development of this nation. It is conse-

quently a startling proposition that the coal supply of the world may become exhausted at a period not very far distant, and at a time which can even now be reckoned with tolerable certainty. We have been accustomed to look upon our coal deposits as an illimitable resource, an inexhaustible storage reservoir of heat and power provided by the Creator against the day of our need. It has been existent in the earth since men have peopled it, yet remained unnoted until their need for it was ripe. What the conditions of life in the world might now be had its presence never become known is an abstruse and useless speculation which it were idle to follow.

The coal existed, was discovered, its uses learned and followed with a wasteful prodigality which has taken no heed of the future, until the astonishingly rapid increase in consumption during the last decade has compelled some thought in this direction.

In 1890 we used twice as much coal in the United States as in 1880. The great development in the use of electricity as light and power was a principal reason for the increase. This development will continue in an even greater ratio through this and succeeding decades, with a proportionate demand upon our coal stores.

In England, where exist the most considerable anthracite deposits outside our own country, the increase in consumption is much less rapid than here; yet at the present rate it is estimated that within a half century the English coal fields will begin to fail and the use of coal from them become economically unprofitable. It is true that these fields are much less extensive than our own, and that the mines have been longer worked, yet they are cited to show that an end is eventually to be expected. The upper veins in England are becoming exhausted and deep mining is growing more dangerous every year and attended with rapidly increasing expenses. In view of these facts American producers are already looking toward England as a field to which coal may soon be profitably exported, so that the "carrying of coals to Newcastle" may eventually become resolved from a theory into a condition.

With us, happily, this evil day is at the least much further away. But the location, the extent, and the capacity of our coal fields are now so definitely known that we may predict with tolerable certainty the time D-Jan.

when they will no longer produce. Two centuries more, or three at the utmost, and the working of our mines must cease. Geology is so exact a science, and geologists have studied the coal measures so carefully that there is hardly a possibility of new discoveries which will tend to any great extension of this time.

As necessity is the mother both of invention and discovery, other agencies to supply the place of coal and to minister to the world's needs will doubtless become known in due season. Only a few years ago many were confident that the desired substitute had been found in natural gas. But this was a short-lived delusion, as we have already learned that there are not inexhaustible stores of gas, but that it is contained in mere "pockets" of varied capacity, none of which can be relied upon to furnish a steady output for any length of time. Where great amounts were consumed in manufacturing, this fault has been made especially apparent. It is now less than ten years since gas displaced coal in the first iron mill in Pittsburg. To be exact as to dates, it was in May, 1884. By the middle of the following summer it had come into use in half of the iron and steel works of the Pittsburg district. Within three years it had supplanted coal in all of them. Two years later the gradual abandonment of natural gas began, because a steady and sufficient supply could not be had, and now there are very few mills where it is used. In all, it has given place again to the use of about two hundred thousand bushels of coal per day—which is quite an important percentage of our whole product. The idea that the supply of natural gas was inexhaustible was entertained for only about a year, or from 1877 to 1878; and the experience with it was such as to render manufacturers cautious about another like departure as long as the coal lasts.

And as for electricity, which it is often asserted will be the heat and light and motive power of the future, it must not be forgotten that fuel is first required for generating this force, and that coal is the fuel upon which we are now relying for this purpose.

The principal deposits of coal in the world are in the United States, Great Britain, British America, France, Belgium, and Spain. The deposits within the United States are greatly in excess of those of all other countries combined, and of anthracite coal espe-

cially we have with England almost the whole supply. And while coal of the different sorts is to be found in many of our states and territories, almost the entire anthracite deposits lie within a comparatively small area in a single state—the eastern portion of Pennsylvania.

The coal is deposited in stratified masses in that portion of the earth's crust known as the secondary formation, or coal measures. It lies in seams which are firmly bedded between strata of rock. These seams vary in thickness from an inch to as much as thirty or forty feet. The total thickness of the coal is one hundred and seven feet, and of the measures with which it is inter-stratified, three thousand feet. The separate strata of the coal constitute the different "levels" of the mine. This name, given to the different workings of the mine as they are reached in descending from the surface, is really a misnomer, as the seams lie always at some angle to the horizon and are never truly level.

Mining consists in locating, opening, and working these seams—all the way from the outcropping upon the surface, to their extreme depth.

Before considering the miner and his mine more closely, let us look for a moment at the history of coal mining.

While the general use of coal is a matter of comparatively recent growth, there is evidence that it was known and valued as fuel even prior to the Christian era. Theophrastus undoubtedly means coal when he says, "Those substances that are called coals and are broken for use are earthy, but they kindle and burn like wooden coals. They are found in Lyguria, where there is amber, and in Elis, over the mountain toward Olympias. They are used by smiths."

The word coal is frequently used in the Bible, but there doubtless to denote any substance employed for fuel rather than a specific fuel.

In the West Riding of Yorkshire, in England, are beds of cinders in which Roman coins have been found, from which it would appear that the Romans had discovered and made use of the coal there.

Mention is made by various writers of the use of coal in England by the Romans and Saxons, but it is not probable that they worked the mines to any great depth but rather availed themselves of the surface outcroppings.

In 1293 Henry III. granted a license for the digging of coals, and this was doubtless the beginning of mining as a commercial industry. Within fifty years thereafter, Newcastle had become famous for its trade in coals, and within a hundred years England was exporting coal to France in exchange for corn. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was some steady but not rapid development in the mining and use of coals. Their employment was almost wholly for heating purposes in London and a few other large cities, and the requirements were of course but a mere bagatelle compared with the modern demands for manufactures and transportation.

A matter worth passing notice, while speaking of the above period, was the condition of the miners at that time. In 1606 an act was passed binding colliers to perpetual service at the mines where engaged, and they were not fully emancipated from this bondage until the very last year of the eighteenth century.

In view of the fact that coal had been so long known and utilized in England, it seems strange that after its discovery in America a considerable time should have elapsed before its use was learned. Still more strange, too, from the fact that the Indians in Pennsylvania appear to have been familiar with its properties. It was found in various places in Pennsylvania by the whites from 1760 to 1770, but so much difficulty was encountered in igniting and burning it that its use gained little headway for many years. In 1807 an ark of coal was shipped to Columbia, Pa., which was probably the first anthracite coal offered for sale in this country. By 1820 the industry was considered as fairly established, the trade then and henceforth amounting to some thousands of tons annually. To understand the development since that time, compare this amount with the shipment for 1890 from a single coal field—the northern anthracite or Wyoming—which reached the sum of 18,657,694 tons.

To show further the present magnitude of the industry, I take the following brief figures from the census of 1890: The total production of anthracite coal during the year 1889 was 40,665,152 tons; the number of employees 125,229; total amount paid in wages, \$39,152,124; number of collieries, 342; value of the product at mines, \$65,718,165.

But statistics at the best are dull work and

fail to give one half so vivid an idea of the magnitude and importance of the industry as will a single day's observation along one of the great arteries of the coal traffic. Along a double track rumbles incessantly an almost endless procession of loaded coal cars going from the mines, while empty ones in like number are returning. Day and night, and day after day through the year this continues, and one is forced to wonder where the coal all goes. But let this procession be interrupted for only a little, by a strike, or by any accident of flood or fire, and the effect is felt almost to the end of the continent.

It is a traffic which almost by itself supports one of the great railway systems of the country, a thing which has no parallel in any other branch of trade or industry, not even where the railways thread the great grain fields of the northwest.

I have given above the number of men directly engaged in the work of mining. If we add those whose livelihood comes from handling it, and from the employment which it is the direct means of furnishing in so many varied channels, we should find that it is a chief basis for the support of no inconsiderable portion of our population.

Within the scope of this paper I can hardly give even a brief description of the method of opening and laying out a mine, but must confine myself to a sketch of the operations when the work is well under way below the ground.

A mine may underlie an almost limitless area, but is not often more than six hundred or eight hundred acres in extent. The land is leased by the operators and a royalty paid upon each ton of coal, usually with a guaranty that a certain amount shall be taken out each year. The mine is composed of from one to a half dozen levels (according to the number of coal beds which the shaft or slope penetrates), lying at varying depths from the surface. At each of the levels gangways or streets run out from the shaft, piercing the bed in each direction. From the gangways open at right angles the chambers from which the coal is cut. The chamber is made by "driving abreast," as it is called, or cutting an opening into the solid coal at the side of the gangway. Between the chambers pillars of coal are left to support the roof. The chambers are usually thirty feet wide, and the pillars are from six to eight yards wide.

Two men work in each chamber. Sometimes it is a miner and his "helper," but more often two miners who work as partners. They are not employed at a given wage *per diem*, but are contractors who furnish their own supplies in the way of tools, blasting powder, etc., and take out the coal at an agreed price per ton.

Upon entering the mine in the morning each man goes at once to his own chamber and begins work by drilling openings for the purpose of putting in the charges of dynamite or blasting powder with which to tear down the solid masses of coal. When a sufficient amount has been blasted, the coal is loaded upon cars and hauled along the gangway to the slope or shaft, and there lifted to the breaker at the top.

Although the mines are always cold and wet, yet the labor of drilling and handling the coal is so great that the miner, stripped to his shirt, soon becomes wet from perspiration; while the dust from the coal is at times almost stifling and adds to his discomfort. The work is extremely thirst-provoking, and each miner carries with him a bottle or can—often a quart or more—of strong black coffee for the purpose of washing the dust from his throat.

The drilling is done mainly by hand. Machine mining has been much experimented with, but not with any great success except in the thicker seams.

The men do not usually make a long day in the mine, but if they can secure cars so as to load as soon as their coal is ready they often come out by the middle of the afternoon.

As each car is loaded the miner attaches to it a card marked with his initials, or with the number of the chamber in which he is working. This is checked to his credit when it reaches the top of the breaker, where it is dumped upon a platform, examined, and a memorandum made of the dockage, should there be any. The cars hold two and one-half tons each, and if they contain an undue quantity of dirt or slate may be docked a quarter or half ton each, or even more. The miners claim that much injustice is done them in this way, against which they have absolutely no recourse; and however confident one may be that he has sent only absolutely clean coal out from his chamber, he may esteem himself fortunate if his account at the end of the month does not show a

dockage amounting to at least a dozen cars.

The coal breaker is an immense wooden structure (a few of iron have recently been built, but their great cost prevents their general introduction), situated at the mouth of the mine, wherein the work of breaking, sorting, and cleaning the coal for the market is conducted.

As the coal comes from the mine it is of different sizes mixed together, just as the blast brought it down. There is everything from the lump weighing hundreds of pounds, down to the fine dust. This is not in marketable condition until it is cleaned from the dust and slate and sorted into the different sizes demanded by the trade. There are lump, steamboat, broken or grate, egg, large stove, small stove, chestnut, pea, buckwheat, and rice.

During the infancy of the coal business the lumps were broken by means of hammers, upon plates of iron in which were openings a little larger than the size of coal to be made. By passing through these holes, some uniformity of size was obtained. The cleaning was then effected by shoveling against screens by hand, as we now sometimes see it done in small coal yards. With the growth of the business such methods soon became too slow and cumbersome, and too expensive as well, and the introduction of machine breaking and handling was the necessary result.

After being lifted to the top of the breaker, the coal in descending again to the surface level passes through a number of rollers and screens, each of which in succession sorts out the largest of the sizes mentioned. The screens are cylindrical and are made of light castings or very heavy wire. They are inclined at a slight angle, and the coal falling into them at the upper end moves forward at each revolution. The openings or meshes in the upper end are small, and increase in size toward the lower end. The cylinders are in sections, below each of which are troughs which catch and conduct the coal of a given size to the storage bins below. The movement of the coal down these troughs is slow, and men and boys seated beside them watch carefully and pick out the slate which has escaped the sorters above. The slate, with all other impurities, is carried by separate chutes direct to the dirt piles.

As the coal passes downward through the breaker it is washed by a constant stream of

water, which carries away all the fine dirt, makes the coal much easier to handle, and allays the dust which would otherwise render the atmosphere of the breaker almost unbearable.

The amount of the material which is laboriously brought from the mine, passed through the breaker, and finally consigned to the waste heaps seems out of all proportion. These great piles of waste, known technically as culm heaps, which surround all the breakers and worked-out and abandoned mines, constitute a marked feature of the landscape throughout the entire coal region. They are made up from the dust, slate, and other refuse which is rejected from the breaker, amounting in all to perhaps thirty per cent of the total output of the mines. These culm heaps are the visible evidence of one of the great—perhaps the greatest—drawbacks to profitable mine operating.

Much of this waste seems needless, and will doubtless be avoided whenever the fact that our coal resources must be husbanded is made sufficiently plain. A considerable quantity of it is produced in the process of breaking up the lumps, thus reducing to dust what would otherwise be merchantable coal. In looking at the great piles, which often rise to a height of a hundred feet and extend over several acres, one cannot avoid the reflection that as good an opportunity exists for the employment of capital and genius here, as below the ground. That the culm contains much good fuel is proven every now and then by the mounds' catching fire, either from spontaneous combustion or ignition, and burning slowly for years.

Shortly before my visit to one of the most important of the Pennsylvania coal fields Mr. Edison had visited the same point for the especial purpose of examining the culm heaps, and had expressed the opinion that seventy-five per cent of their contents was reclaimable for fuel.

Besides this waste of coal outside the mine, there is another and equally serious one inside; and that lies in the fact that nearly half the coal that is opened up and exposed in the mine still remains there when the mine is worked out and abandoned. I have already shown that the pillars or divisions between the chambers are almost as wide as the chambers themselves, and these must remain as a support for the roof. Sometimes, at the last, an attempt is made to remove a portion

of them. This is called "robbing" the mine, and is an operation which is always attended with much danger. But dangers beset the miner so constantly that he becomes inured to them, and perhaps callous and careless. From the moment when he enters the cage to descend the shaft until he emerges again into the upper day, it is no mere figure of speech to say that death stalks beside him.

In lowering or raising the cage there is always the possibility of some defect in the hoisting apparatus, which may permit it to drop suddenly sheer to the bottom; or it may jump from the guides and become loose in the shaft, to the hardly less imminent danger of every one upon it.

At the foot of the shaft and in the gangways there is always danger of being caught by the rapidly moving cars, a possibility that is intensified by the gloom of the mine which renders objects indistinguishable except within the narrow radius of light from the little safety lamps.

When at work in the chambers, the premature explosion of a blast or the unexpected falling of a mass of coal sends many a poor fellow to his doom. These are the things that endanger and destroy single lives. The damps—fire-damp and the no less deadly black-damp—catch the men by dozens and by scores. So do the cave-ins, which pen them like rats in a hole. It would be difficult to imagine a more horrible fate than such living entombment, hundreds of feet beneath the surface of the earth. But it is one that countless numbers have met, and that every one must think of when he enters the mine for his daily task.

It would seem that when these dangers are added to the already difficult and unpleasant work of the miner, he should receive more than the ordinary compensation of a laborer. It is difficult to make any correct average or estimate of miners' wages, as they vary so much with differing conditions. When working in a thick seam, the coal can be taken out much more easily and rapidly than from a narrow seam. When mining clean coal, more can be earned than when mining dirty coal, because the dockage upon the output is much less. When working upon an up slope the coal is handled more easily than on a down slope. But under average conditions the miner receives less pay for the same hours of labor than does almost any other craftsman, although engaged in

the most severe, dangerous, and unpleasant of all occupations. Add to this the fact that there are frequent stoppages of work—sometimes long continued—from various causes, such as accidents in the mine or to the machinery, accumulation of stocks, strikes, lockouts, etc., and it may be seen that the financial condition of the miner is not an inviting one.

Comparatively few Americans are engaged in the work. In the beginning the laborers were chiefly Welshmen who had become experienced in the mines of their own country, and who came here for the purpose of securing better wages. These have, during recent years, gradually given way before the encroachment of Huns, Slavs, and Poles, until such now constitute the principal labor element of every important mining district. They are people who are accustomed to and apparently satisfied with lower conditions of life than we have been accustomed to consider the due of the American laborer, and have in consequence not much to fear from the competition of the latter.

It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the relations between the operator and the miner, between capital and labor. But so long as one side has been touched upon, it will be only fair briefly to present the other.

Just as this article is being prepared, the president of the Reading Railway System—the great coal company of the country—testifies before the state senate committee of Pennsylvania that the cost of all the coal produced by his company for the year 1891, was \$3.95 per ton, delivered at Jersey City. This is without anything for the coal in the ground, or for interest or depreciation of the plant producing it. He further testified that adding proper amounts to these items for royalty and depreciation would make the cost \$4.55, while the average price received for prepared sizes was \$4.30, showing an actual loss of 25 cents per ton.

So we have a condition of affairs in which the miner is underpaid for his labor, the producer is operating at a loss, while the consumer of course thinks he is paying too much for the product; and this while there is no stagnation in the trade, but while the need and demand for coal are constantly growing. It is a condition which can be corrected only by the introduction of more economical methods, and the better avoidance of waste.

A coal town is as busy a hive of industry

as can easily be found. But a deserted coal village, with the idle breaker and the empty houses clustering about the mouth of the worked-out mine, only the great culm piles standing as monuments of the past, is its exact antithesis.

The miner, digging up this treasure from the depths of the earth, might stand as the

synonym for honest and rugged labor. But to see the wives and children of the miners picking over the waste heaps all day long, and carrying the saved lumps of coal to the village merchant to barter for food, adds the tragic element to this picture of toil. But it is of such contrasts that life in the coal regions is made up.

End of Required Reading for January.

A MIRACLE OF LOVE.

BY GEORGE E. DAY.

I KNEW a man who seemed a soulless thing,
A hopeless plodder in a dreary way,
Careful in nothing, save that day by day
His humble task its small reward might bring.
His world was girdled by a narrow ring
Of common duties, knowing not the sway
Of pains and pleasures moving finer clay;
So dull content reigned as his chosen king.

But one day Love came knocking at his heart,
With mighty passion, fearing not defeat;
And, like a man awakened out of sleep,
He felt new life through all his being start;
A noble impulse, new, and strangely sweet,—
And walked where stars in mighty orbits sweep.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY.

BY KENYON WEST.

THIS is an age of many alluring interests and of many urgent claims. The mass of the people of this country are absorbed in certain occupations which often prevent them from paying much attention to the works of the great masters of literature. They say they have no time to read anything but current literature, and when we consider how varied and multiform that literature is, the result is not surprising.

We do not by any means intend to disparage the work of our modern magazines. It comprises noble and original fiction; fine criticism of letters and of life; and it shows constant advancement in art. These attractions have, however, a perilous side. Emerson, who said once that we should never read a new book, that we should wait at least a year

to see if it is going to live, would, were he with us now, doubtless have abundant cause to emphasize his caution and enforce his advice. Every year, every month, makes it more and more difficult to resist the fascinations of what is in its very nature ephemeral. But we must learn the difficult art of how to reject as well as to choose; and when we have once learned that, we will find time to make serviceable the vast "realm of printed matter that four centuries have swept across our path." This is the intellectual task of our age,—to systematize our reading, to reject that which is transient in influence, and to choose the immortal thoughts of the greatest. We may indeed often find these immortal thoughts in the work of our contemporaries; but our power to judge

whether their work will live, will have been strengthened by our knowledge of the past.

Thus it will not only be at centennial periods that our thoughts will turn back to certain men who have made our literature what it is, but in many quiet hours when our spirits need refreshment, solace, guidance, we will take up Wordsworth, Goldsmith, Thackeray, Talfourd, Scott.

On the 4th of last August occurred the centenary of Percy Bysshe Shelley. The thoughts of all men of letters turned naturally to him, the strange and fascinating story of his life has been once more reviewed in all its conflicting aspects; with new confidence in the infallibility of their judgment, for time has in this case as in so many others brought counsel, critics have called the attention of the world to the unique characteristics of Shelley's poetry, and also bespoken for his perfect prose the interest it so eminently deserves.

A tangible evidence that Shelley's work has taken an abiding place in English literature is shown by the character of what has been said and written and done in commemoration of his centenary. And yet how much time has the "general reader" devoted to this master of lyrical beauty? What upon the masses has been the effect of the matchless eloquence of his verse? Can it be questioned that the majority of readers are insensitive to his subtle charm, to his peculiar imaginative power, to the grace and the harmony of his phrase? This is not because these readers totally lack appreciation of the higher forms of poetry. Our age is scientific, practical,—material if you wish to call it so,—conditions in their nature unfavorable to the lyric mood. But the spirit of humanity always seeks, sooner or later, relief from prosaic conditions. The cause of the somewhat restricted range of Shelley's influence lies in the claims which contemporary literature is constantly urging upon the time and attention of the people, rather than in their lack of taste for poetry.

But some reader of this magazine may say: "I do like Shelley. I have read his 'Sky-lark' and its thrilling beauty stirs my heart; I have read many of those wonderful lyrics in 'Prometheus,' and I should like to know how they came to be written; I should like to be able to trace the influences which caused that undertone of pain amid all his rapture when he sings of love, and of virtue, and of human progress. I go to some library and

consult Poole. Here are two or three pages devoted to this poet,—where among all this mass of essays can a busy man find what he needs? I tell the librarian my wants. And he tells me I can have Dowden's *Life*, and he hands me two large, thick volumes. I have not time to read that. I want to know just a few reliable facts which will help me to understand the personal element in the poetry of Shelley, and also to judge whether, when I take up, for example, an essay by Matthew Arnold, I am getting a prejudiced or an unprejudiced opinion."

It is for such a reader that this article is written. It will necessarily be brief and fragmentary. It can neither give the biographical details which every encyclopedia can furnish, nor the elaborate criticism of the poet's genius or character which papers like those of Hutton or Stopford Brooke give so well. My object is to try to awaken interest, where now there is so little interest, both in Shelley himself and in his work. That once aroused then the voluminous literature which has been evoked by his life and work will be found to be a source of great intellectual delight.

"*Queen Mab*" was the first poem of any importance that Shelley wrote. When a schoolboy at Eton he had published two or three novels which were exaggerated in feeling and untrue to life. These have been deservedly forgotten. He also brought out certain poems which showed some originality; they were audacious in spirit and had some beauty of form. The burlesque verses which he wrote at Oxford with the help of his friend Hogg excited some attention, simply because they were supposed to be written by the unfortunate woman who in a moment of insanity had attempted to assassinate the king. It was not until Shelley wrote "*Alastor*" that his unique poetical power became manifest; "*Queen Mab*," however, is notable because it shows the poet's attitude toward the religious and social beliefs of the age. This mental attitude cannot be ignored in any truthful analysis of the poet's work.

Shelley's childhood had been passed at Field Place, a large manor house near Horsham, Sussex. He was the eldest child of Timothy, afterwards Sir Timothy Shelley, and he belonged to a wealthy and illustrious family. His childhood was a very happy one, in the companionship of loving sisters, and in his relations to them and to his mother he

always showed himself considerate and affectionate. At the Brentford Academy and at Eton, the dreamy, thoughtful boy was very unhappy. He was out of his element among his rough companions who persecuted and tormented him at first his very last. When he went up to Oxford in 1810, at the age of eighteen, his heart was on fire with indignation at the oppressions and the injustice of the world, and doubtless this natural tendency had been fostered by his experiences at Eton.

An absorbing love for books prompted him to study many things not in the curriculum of Oxford, and at first his mind was drawn to materialism; Lucretius and various French writers were his especial guides. A study of Hume led to the writing of that pamphlet on the "Necessity of Atheism" for which he was expelled from Oxford. This act of his beloved university was a great blow to this sensitive, loving, unselfish nature. The strong feeling against tyranny, born of the revolutionary ideas which fascinated him, his contempt for authority, and his disregard of tradition, had been strengthened by his Eton life; and now this unjust act of Oxford was a still stronger force in the development of those peculiar social and political ideas which influenced every manifestation of his genius. These ideas added to his belief in the impossibility of proving the existence of a personal God because he took the evidence of the senses as a satisfactory criterion of proof,—all these are reflected in "Queen Mab." The poem, though it does not rise to the height that Shelley afterwards attained in "Prometheus Unbound," has in a marked degree the eloquence and the fervid glowing enthusiasm of his later works. His intense faith in human progress, his love for liberty, for widespread charity, and perfect justice find in this poem most beautiful expression. It has all those strange and unaccountable views of morality which made Shelley so unpopular in his lifetime and even now impair his influence. In his hatred of tyranny he wished to abolish kings and governments; in his hatred of superstition he wished to de-throne the current conception of God and to do away with the Christian religion; in his desire for liberty he wished to uproot law and to abolish those social conventions which are the crystallization of the varied experiences of humanity and have their foundation in natural moral instincts. He wished to abolish marriage because he believed that where love was not present the marriage bond was slavery.

In fact, in this audacious poem, Shelley attacked all the cherished beliefs and institutions of society.

It is scarcely necessary to point out the fallacies of Shelley's elaborate arguments in the poem itself and in the famous notes. There seems to have been a flaw somewhere in Shelley's judgment, a blindness of perception which is lamentable. But he was so sincere, so willing to become a martyr for the truth as he conceived it, that his errors of opinion cannot ever be regarded with contempt. And Shelley did become a martyr for his opinions. A few friends had the power to see what a true and noble heart he had, how earnestly he desired the welfare of humanity; but the critics opposed him with hot and violent scorn. Shelley had a brave spirit and no social ostracism or public abuse had power to quench that deathless flame of genius which shone with such brilliancy, gathering new strength and brightness to the very end; but it made him shrink within himself, and thus he missed much of that knowledge of human life and character which would have widened his artistic range.

Though Shelley's notions of history, of civil institutions, and of religion are, as expressed in "Queen Mab," crude and one-sided and prejudiced, the poem nevertheless contains very important truths, clothed in imagery which is exquisitely beautiful. It is a glowing expression of some of Shelley's finest qualities,—an earnest devotion to humanity, a belief in its constant development, its progress through love toward the attainment of the highest virtue. It is a poem which expresses contempt for the past, but joy in the contemplation of an ideal future when men will be free and wise and good, the accident of evil cast out by the power of man's purified will. The close of the poem where Shelley paints the world he wished for has much of the poetic fire which distinguished him later:

"Yet, human Spirit, bravely hold thy course,
Let virtue teach thee firmly to pursue
The gradual paths of an aspiring change:
For birth and life and death, and that strange
state
Before the naked soul has found its home,
All tend to perfect happiness, and urge
The restless wheels of being on their way,
Whose flashing spokes instinct with infinite
life,
Bicker and burn to gain their destined goal."

"Queen Mab" was printed in 1813.

Since his expulsion from Oxford Shelley had meanwhile passed through some varied and exciting experiences. His father had been greatly incensed at Shelley's heretical opinions. Imagining that Hogg, the friend who had shared Shelley's exile from Oxford, was largely responsible for his son's conduct, Timothy Shelley bade his son give Hogg up. This was refused, and the poor fellow paid for his disobedience by having his allowance curtailed, sometimes cut off. His sisters sent him supplies from their pocket money while he was living in London lodgings with Hogg. Their messenger was a schoolmate who was young and beautiful. The result is well known. The acquaintance with Harriet Westbrook deepened into something very like affection, and when she, in her ignorance of what was fit and becoming, threw herself upon his protection, all the chivalry in his nature responded. The evidence is very strong that Shelley was wooed by Harriet far more than he wooed her. It shows the inherent nobleness of his nature, that he married her at once. Here he was of course inconsistent. Emerson says that a foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds. Shelley's mind was a great one and he could afford to sacrifice consistency to his own theoretical views in deference to the welfare of the woman who loved him. We wish that when, later, Shelley deserted Harriet he had been less consistent to his peculiar ideas of the obligations of marriage. The marriage with Harriet brought to a climax the quarrel with his father. Timothy Shelley had often said that he was quite willing his son should be as so many young men in England were then,—false and corrupt in heart while outwardly conforming to the orthodox religion and to social conventions. This Shelley could not do. His moral record at Eton and at Oxford was one of the purest. He had been betrayed into none of the dissipations which are so common. Though his father had said he would not object to his son having certain vices, he had also said he would never pardon a *mésalliance*. So when the grandson of a baronet married the daughter of a retired innkeeper, Timothy Shelley closed his doors against him forever. Shelley was without the home of his childhood. The three years he spent with Harriet were years of wandering,—from York to Keswick, thence to Ireland, then back to England, living a

while in Wales, and then again in London.

Of course wishes are vain and useless, but if Shelley had only remained in Keswick what a wonderful difference there would have been in his whole life-record! There in the society of men like Southey and Coleridge, Wordsworth and De Quincey, in the presence of that natural scenery which has animated the verse of the greatest of the poets of nature, Shelley's love for beauty would have found abundant food, his intellectual powers would have strengthened and deepened and been directed to more healthful subjects. There Shelley would have lived to a ripe old age, and there been buried beneath the sod of those lovely hills. The cruel sea and the swift wind would have been defrauded of their prey. But Shelley did not stay in Keswick, he left before he had even seen Wordsworth, though he and Southey were much together. Work in Ireland to rouse the people to assert their political rights; work in Wales to help poor suffering, starving men; practical charity and loving service to the poor, and untiring intellectual study,—this is the record of these wandering years.

Thus we come to 1814 when one of his most famous lyrics was written:

"Away, the moor is dark beneath the moon."

Harriet's love for him had grown cold in proportion as she had lost interest in the studies in which she at first plunged with such enthusiasm. There was fault on both sides. At last she left him for a time. He urged her return in some exquisite lyrics which Dowden prints for the first time. But lyrics do not always satisfy the heart; and Harriet was obstinate and hard, and he,—his love was fast changing to indifference. The "sad and silent home" mentioned in the poem, "Stanzas, April, 1814," is because Harriet is away; the "light of one sweet smile" is that of a friend whom Shelley often visited, an elderly lady, Mrs. Boinville.

In adhering to the doctrines set forth by Godwin in his "Political Justice," Shelley had declared that when love ceased the marriage bond should be dissolved. Hence he resolved to free himself from the past and begin life anew without Harriet. But Shelley did not determine to do this until he had met Mary Godwin. Here is a weak point in his theories. Here is the weak point in Shelley's life. In this bare line outline of Shelley's biography, we have not space to speak of the moral aspect

of Shelley's actions nor to analyze the poet's temperament or mode of thought except as it bears relation to certain personal poems. To every one with high ideas of duty and of obligation there can be nothing in his conduct to win admiration or respect. But he acted in harmony with his own publicly avowed opinions and sincere convictions.

He and Mary Godwin left England together and spent a few delightful months in Switzerland and on the Rhine. The days in London after their return were harassed by poverty. When at last Sir Bysshe Shelley's death enabled Shelley to arrange his affairs with his father he received a certain amount which freed him from anxiety. He and Mary settled at Bishopsgate on the borders of Windsor Forest and here was composed "Alastor."

In this great poem there is none of the argumentative style of "Queen Mab," and for that very reason it is on a much higher plane. In not all of Shelley's longer poems is there unity of idea and purpose. Of them all "Alastor" is the most perfect work of art in this respect. His imagination soared higher in "Prometheus" and "Hellas," but so far as unity of conception and steadiness of expression and form are concerned Shelley never did better work than in "Alastor."

Shelley's emancipation from the fretting cares of his days in London, his restored health—for his vitality had been lowered by a persistent course of vegetarianism—and the comfort of his perfectly harmonious union with a woman eminently fitted to be the companion of such an ethereal poet, all tended to aid in the development of his genius. Many of his eager and glowing hopes for reforming man had failed, his schemes for Ireland had been frustrated, and his union with Harriet Westbrook had been a disappointment. Hence we see in this great poem the influence both of his hard experience and of the happiness which was giving him such content. We see, too, the influence of those thoughts born of his ill-health, and his anticipations of an early death. These feelings had also inspired those lines written in the churchyard at Lechdale:

"Here could I hope . . . that death did hide
from human sight
Sweet secrets."

The poet's political hopes were, though not dead, held in abeyance, and he allowed his poetic soul to revel in the beauties and the

mysteries of nature, and to find in her reflections of his own high, exalted mood. "Alastor" is a "record marvelously enhanced of all the impressions" derived from his travels on the continent and in England. It goes very deeply into the very heart of nature, and it shows Shelley to be not alone the poet of external loveliness but the poet of love. "It is a pleading on behalf of human love" which has seldom been more passionately expressed. It would be impossible by quotation to do justice to the delicate, subtle thoughts which crowd this poem. Its descriptive power proves how the larger aspects of nature had thrilled the poet with exquisite passion, and the melody of his verse is at times "like the harmonies we seem to hear among waters and woods." The moods of nature correspond with charming effect to the moods of the poet, and thus his rapturous vision is influenced by personal emotion.

The critics who condescended to notice "Alastor" were severe in their judgment, but it was because the thought of the poet was too fine, too imaginative for their more material intellects to comprehend. Leigh Hunt's assertion that the poem was the production of a striking and original thinker, stimulated and encouraged the solitary poet.

To the visit to Switzerland in 1816 we owe two important poems, the "Hymn to Intellectual Beauty," which was written as he sailed around the Lake of Geneva with Byron, and "Mont Blanc" as he visited the Vale of Chamouni.

We see in the first poem a union of his passionate worship of beauty and his hopes for man's progress,—hopes which held in abeyance in "Alastor" are now struggling again into supremacy,—soon to burst forth in the majestic eloquence of "The Revolt of Islam."

The winter of 1816 was darkened for Shelley by the suicide of his wife. Many other sorrows and anxieties oppressed him and he wrote very little. To his wife's death we owe those lines written the following year:

"That time is dead forever, child."

The death of Fanny, the daughter of Mary Wollstonecraft, inspired the "Lines on F. G.," and the poems "To Constantia" refer to the unhappy Claire Claremont who was now an inmate of Shelley's home after having separated from Lord Byron.

Mrs. Shelley speaks of the sad thronging

thoughts which were the source of the idea of "Prince Athanase," a poem which expresses the restless, passion-fraught emotions of his sensibility, kindled to too intense a life and perpetually preying upon itself. Shelley never outlived the pain of Harriet's death. He did not blame himself for it and he felt justified in leaving her, but her sad death could not fail to affect a man so sensitive to sorrow as he, so naturally gentle and unselfish. Prince Athanase of course is Shelley himself, and the old man Zonoras is a friend of Shelley's Eton days to whom he owed much of his enthusiasm for what is highest and noblest. The poem is but a fragment. Had Shelley completed it he might have carried the analysis of character to a point too remote from healthy human life and passion.

Shelley was now living at Marlow. He had passed through the sorrow of the chancery suit which deprived him of the care of Harriet's children, and now feeling he had little more sorrow to expect he applied himself to that long poem "Laon and Cythna," afterwards called "The Revolt of Islam." His aim in this poem is expressed in the preface. It is a poem directly traceable to the influence of the French Revolution. Its failures had never daunted his hopes. He wished to break through the apathy and the despair which its excesses had caused, and he wished to "rekindle in men the aspiration toward a happier condition of moral and political society." He wished to embody in glowing verse his ideal of revolution,—an ideal fine indeed, as it was based on love and justice and charity and high aspirations; but tainted by Shelley's strange and pernicious views of the relation between man and woman unsanctified by law.

To use Shelley's own words, "The Revolt of Islam" is a "long and labyrinthine maze." Half the time the ordinary reader cannot tell at what the poet is aiming,—his thoughts too often drift into cross currents, and thus lose their impetus and force; and then will come a vivid description or a magnificent burst of eloquence which is perfectly enchanting. But the poem is unequal, it does not possess that unity of thought which in "Alastor" so satisfies the artistic sense. It is a glorious structure indeed, but it is built of diamonds and glass, pebbles and gold, in about equal proportions. Because of the protests of publishers and friends Shelley

suppressed certain offending passages and changed "Laon and Cythna" into "The Revolt of Islam" as it now stands. The heroine of the poem is an exalted ideal of woman. She occupies an equal place in the reforming work in which the hero is engaged. Shelley was ahead of his age in believing that woman should share in the general concerns of humanity and should influence them directly by means of her own thoughts and actions, not indirectly by the intervention of man. In Miss Blind's opinion, Cythna, prophet and reformer, is a creation unique in poetical fiction. To Shelley belongs, she says, the honor of being the first poet who has embodied the most momentous of our modern ideas,—the emancipation of women. He is thus the poetic forerunner of John Stuart Mill, and has achieved in the world of the ideal that which is now being practically realized in the world of science.

Should "The Revolt of Islam" prove uninteresting to the reader who for the first time begins to study Shelley, he should not neglect to read the dedication to Mary Godwin, the poet's second wife. Those famous lines recalling the old painful days at school occur here. There are fine and tender allusions to the brilliant and unhappy Mary Wollstonecraft, and there is a beautiful tribute to Mary Shelley herself, to her whose genius was scarcely less than that of her husband, and who was his "own heart's home" and consolation for eight happy years.

"Rosalind and Helen" is a poem which especially derives interest from its personal tone. It expresses the same mode of thought which inspired "The Revolt of Islam." It expresses the spirit of revolt against the institutions of society because they are, as the poet believed, founded on injustice. The marriage bond without love is here described with all its unhappy influences. It was a theme at all times to awaken Shelley's eloquent indignation. In the interval between the commencement and the completion of this poem Shelley had left England forever. Thus we come to the last years in Italy, those years so full of artistic achievement; when his genius was gradually freeing itself from those influences which in his youth had hampered its flight; when his soul, growing and expanding as all great souls must, was attaining that keener vision, that insight into truth, which would have

given to his art the range and depth which come only after years of experience, of suffering, of intellectual and spiritual conflict. Death, sudden and swift, cut short the glowing creations of Shelley's genius, and so we see in his work immaturity and incompleteness; but seldom in all history has there been such a record of impetuous and victorious energy, like the record of Shelley's four years in Italy. It is as though he felt that his life was to be brief, and he wished to crowd into it the achievement which would have been a glory to a life of twice the length of his.

After finishing "*Rosalind and Helen*" at the Baths of Lucca during the summer of 1818, Shelley visited Byron at Venice. His letters contain many discriminating criticisms of the life led by Byron,—a life very distasteful to the purer mind of Shelley. The poetical result of their intercourse was "*Julian and Maddalo*," a poem which Rossetti characterizes as the most perfect specimen in the English language of the poetical treatment of ordinary things. There is a blending of fiction with the truth of this poem. The little *Allegra*—the child of Byron and the unhappy *Claire Claremont*—never grew to womanhood, as *Julian*, in the poem, asserts. She died at a convent, while her mother was longing to be with her, but mother and child had been cruelly separated by Byron's stern, relentless will.

Byron offered to Shelley his villa at Este, and while waiting for his family to join him there Shelley wrote those loving lines to his wife:

"Oh Mary dear, that thou wert here, . . .
Mary dear, come to me soon,
I am not well, whilst thou art far;
As sunset to the spherèd moon,
As twilight to the western star,
Thou, beloved, art to me."

Their little daughter *Clara* died soon after the arrival at Este.

Of the poems directly traceable to the poet's peculiar circumstances or mood, the "*Stanzas written in Dejection near Naples*" stand out with vividness. Many heartless slanders which grieved him; the apathy with which the British public had received both his poems and his pamphlets on reform; many sad thoughts of *Harriet's* death; the decree of the Court of Chancery; his exile from the beloved home of his childhood,—all

these contributed to great depression of spirits. Later in Rome another sorrow came to Shelley and Mary in the loss of their little son. The pathetic lines "*To William Shelley*" speak of the poet's grief. Mary never was the same again. The boy was buried in the English cemetery at Rome. "This spot," said Shelley, "is the repository of a sacred loss, of which the yearnings of a parent's heart are now prophetic; he is rendered immortal by love, as his memory is by death." Of the adjoining cemetery where the body of *Keats* was soon afterwards placed, Shelley said: "It might make one in love with death to think that one should be buried in so sweet a place."

Shelley's life in Italy was a repetition of that in England—restless wandering from place to place. The climate of Italy had improved his health, the danger of consumption was removed, but it became necessary to use care in the selection of water. Search for that which best agreed with him was probably as much the cause of his frequent change of residence as the remorse which some biographers insist was his deserved heritage. The disease which afflicted Shelley caused him much suffering. He often sought relief in opiates, to them probably were due many of his strange delusions. In forming any judgment of the nature of this poet, made up of so many complex and conflicting elements, it is always well to remember what Robert Browning said: "I would press on the reader the simple justice of considering tenderly his constitution of body as well as mind and how unfavorable it was to the steady symmetries of conventional life, the body in the torture of incurable disease, refusing to give repose to the bewildered soul, tossing in its hot fever of the fancy, and the laudanum bottle making but a pitiful truce between the two."

To "*Prometheus Unbound*," that triumph of Shelley's lyrical genius, it is impossible to do justice without going too much into detail. It cannot be fully appreciated until the reader has imbued himself with the spirit of Shelley's other writings, and more or less understood the bent of his philosophical thought. The scene of action is far removed from the sphere of human life. The personages are personified abstractions, or personified forms of nature. The thought is veiled in a mass of gorgeous imagery, or overpowered by the wealth of lyrical beauty. The

central thought, however, is the expression of the belief which animated Shelley's theory of life, that evil is something external to the human spirit. Here in this poem it is a malignant power which must be opposed: elsewhere it is often considered as a mere accident, or an intellectual error. The philosophy of "Prometheus Unbound" cannot bear very close analysis without suffering in the process; but this wonderful poem, boundless in its scope, is chiefly valuable for its rapturous exaltation of the virtues of love, fortitude, justice, hope, and undaunted aspiration. And it is radiant with beauty, enchanting in its lyrical harmonies. It must be read many times to be appreciated. It is well, when first attempting it, to let the spirit and the beauty and the music of the separate lyrics of which it is made up become familiar before wrestling with the ethical problems which form the subject-matter of the poem as a whole.

In 1819 Shelley wrote a letter which is now in the British Museum. One of its sentences was: "I have nearly finished my 'Cenci,' which Mary likes." Written in the midst of the great sorrow caused by the death of little William, this drama has a stately, majestic sadness in harmony both with the subject and with the poet's own feeling. The power Shelley showed in this drama and also in the fragment "Charles I.," written later, prove that with added years, more opportunity to study human character and motives, he would doubtless have become one of the great dramatists of the world. It seems scarcely possible that works so different as the "Prometheus" and the "Cenci" should have come from the same hand in the same year.

In the wonderful lyric of 1819, perhaps Shelley's greatest, he gives expression to his ardent desire to benefit the world by the incantation of his verse, the desire that his thoughts driven over the universe may quicken a new birth. The "Ode to the West Wind" ends with a note of hope, a note which it is blessed to hear, for the prevailing tone of Shelley's poetry is one of sadness.

The immortal lyrics of 1820 should be read and reread. Shelley's genius never soared higher. The work of this year belongs to the finest lyrical poetry which England possesses.

Maria Gisborne, one of the few friends of the Shelleys in Italy, held by them especially dear because she had been loved by Mary Wollstonecraft, had the good fortune

on her departure for England to inspire a poetical epistle which has made her famous. It is a poem wholly unlike anything else Shelley ever wrote, and shows in a new light some of his most charming characteristics. There are many interesting allusions to the friends left behind in England,—Hogg, the H. of the poem, Peacock, Horace Smith, Hunt, Coleridge.

Shelley never swerved in his allegiance to Mary, but though faithful to her, he had two friendships toward the end of his life which influenced his poetry to a marked extent. "Epipsychidion," inspired by his friendship for Emilia Viviani, is a poem of love, treating it in its most ideal form. It is an apotheosis of the spirit of love which Shelley had worshiped all his life. The poetry addressed to Jane Williams, the wife of the friend who perished with Shelley, is exceedingly beautiful and touching. He said that she was the lady of "The Sensitive Plant"; to her refer those love songs, "The Recollection," "The Invitation," "Ariel to Miranda."

The subject of Shelley's peculiar ideal conception of love is such a vast and interesting one that it cannot be treated within a narrow compass. Shelley's life cannot be put into a paragraph. It has to be studied in detail in order to arrive at the truth. In a paper such as this, what is said has to be so fragmentary, so wholly inadequate to the requirements of the subject, that discouragement is the inevitable result of the attempt. We need to say nothing of the poet's last days; the story of the sad, thrilling tragedy has been told so often. Amid the mournful and majestic music of his noble "Elegy on the Death of Keats" are heard some tones of personal sorrow and reference to his own temperament and circumstance as the cause of that prevailing sorrow. In Adonais' fate Shelley seems to have seen a prefiguring of his own. Haunted by visions of an early death he speaks of himself as a dying lamp, a falling shower, a breaking billow;

"—even whilst we speak,

Is it not broken?"

About the time Shelley wrote "Adonais" a little poem on Time contained these words:

"Unfathomable sea! . . .

Treacherous in calm, and terrible in storm,

Who shall put forth on thee,

Unfathomable sea?"

And in one short year the unfathomable sea

had overwhelmed him, and his life's bark was borne darkly, fearfully afar.

In contrast with those poems which too plainly show the poet's prophetic feeling, read "The Boat on the Serchio," written in 1821, when he and Williams, then living only four miles apart, were to spend one long happy day together in their boat.

We have not spoken of Shelley's delightful *Essays and Letters*. All his prose should be read as well as his poetry. "He can only be judged justly," says Stopford Brooke, "or fitly loved, when everything he wished to be published has been carefully studied. . . . We cannot comprehend him in the right way by reading only his finest poems, supposing

we could choose them. . . . Through his weakness we know part of his strength."

To know Shelley thoroughly we must contrast his "Essay on Christianity" with his "Queen Mab" and thus trace his growth and development. His "Defense of Poetry," that masterpiece of eloquent prose, will teach us how to value "Prometheus" and "Adonais."

A great poet was lost to the world on that fatal 8th of July, 1822, a poet who in spite of many errors and mistakes was struggling upward toward the light of truth; who was, therefore, among those of whom Berlioz spoke, who by their struggle and their pain purchase light and movement for humanity.

LIGHT ON A DEAD PAST.

BY H. R. CHAMBERLAIN.

THE great silent figure of the sphinx has defied the curiosity of the world for centuries. It has been for us a symbol of well-guarded secrecy, more than a monument of a dead age. With what emotion then must we receive the announcement that at last those stony lips are speaking; that the lost record of a lost epoch of human history is being revealed. The age which did more than all others to set its time-enduring mark upon the earth has been for forty centuries unrecorded in profane history. The pyramids are eternal, as man reckons time, but the story of the hands that made them vanished almost with the building. But it has come back to us and there has followed it a marvelous unveiling of the very infancy of the race of man.

So meager and of such disputed accuracy have been until recently the available data upon which our versions of ante-Egyptian history were based that they have been regarded by the popular mind as of scarcely more than legendary and mythological authority. The Bible was for many generations the only historical text-book of the race. Many attacks have been made upon the Scriptural record in the name of science, but until within a generation or two they have been based upon alleged inconsistencies with nature's revelations and not upon any discovered testimony handed down by the buried nations themselves. But since yesterday it

has been found that the treasure houses of these long-hidden secrets still exist unviolated. More wonderful still, the keys of the inner vaults—the languages and signs in which these secrets are locked—are also in our hands.

It is doubtful if a more interesting volume of the world's history has ever been restored to it than that which will record the proceedings of the Oriental Congress which met in London in September last. The results of search and study announced at its sessions by some of the most indefatigable scholars of the day will come to most of us as a sudden flood of light thrown upon the most indistinct pages in human history. Is it not enough to excite the wonder of the most practical and unromantic among us to hear read from a tablet perhaps four thousand years old the newest or rather the oldest story of creation; to look upon a map showing Europe and Asia separated by a great sea and to listen to the evidence which traces the history of the white race to an age when the face of the earth was not as we now know it; to have described to us the uncovered magnificence of the great palaces of Cyrus and Darius and Xerxes and the splendid sarcophagus of probably Alexander the Great himself; to examine fresh from its hiding-place of centuries the oldest manuscript of the first translation of the Scriptures, made more than two centuries before the Christian

era; to—but even the catalogue of discoveries and of solutions of ancient mysteries is too long to be recorded here.

No more fascinating review of the whole subject of orientalism was ever presented than that embodied in the address of Professor Max Müller at the opening session of the Congress. He made it clear that the researches of the student and the explorer do not merely gratify the passion for discovery; they throw new light on problems near to our hearts to-day. The whole tendency of late discoveries, Professor Müller added, was to prove an active intellectual intercourse between the ancient nations of the earth. "The ancient history of our race," were his words of conclusion, "seems to crystallize and to disclose in the very form of its crystallization laws or purposes running through the most distant ages of the world of which our forefathers had no suspicion. Here it is where oriental studies appeal not to specialists only, but to all who see in the history of the human race the supreme problem of all philosophy—a problem which in the future will have to be studied, not as heretofore, by *a priori* reasoning, but chiefly by the light of historical evidence."

In attempting to sketch three or four of the more striking pictures of life in an antiquity measured by centuries and reproduced for modern view at the London conference, let me direct attention first to the oldest recorded theory of the creation of man. The story has been deciphered from the characters on a small Babylonian tablet of baked clay, which after lying hidden since long before the days of Moses and the book of Genesis, was brought once more under human scrutiny not many weeks ago. It should be remembered that one other history of creation of Babylonian origin was translated from a similar source by the late George Smith. There were some very interesting parallels between the Bible account of the origin of man and that found on Mr. Smith's tablets. The dissimilarities on the whole, however, were greater than the parallels. But the record now brought to light by Mr. T. G. Pinches of the British Museum and described to the Oriental Congress is quite different from that interpreted for us by Mr. Smith. Mr. Pinches designates Mr. Smith's translation as the Semitic Babylonian version and the one recently brought to light as the Sumerian Babylonian version. The newly dis-

covered tablet, it should be said, bears both versions—the one now for the first time made known to us is in large clear characters and the Semitic version is in much smaller signs written between the lines.

While the first chapter of Genesis opens with a description of chaos, and the Semitic Babylonian version with a mention of the time when "the heavens were not proclaimed and the earth recorded not a name," the Sumerian account begins with a time when "the glorious house of the gods had not been made, a plant had not been brought forth, and a tree had not been created; when a brick had not been laid, a beam not shaped, a house not built, a city not constructed, and a glorious foundation or dwelling of men had not been made." When within the sea there was a stream, then Eridu was made, E-Sagila, "the high-headed temple," was constructed, "E-Sagila which the god Lugal-du-azaga, the lord of the glorious mound, founded within the abyss." Then too Babylon was built, and the earthly E-Sagila, the high-headed temple within it, was completed. Then for the first time comes a mention of the creation of living things; but they are not men or animals, but beings of a much higher station, gods and the *anunnaki*, who were made by a creator unnamed, but probably the Lugal-du-azaga mentioned previously. The same deity then "supremely proclaimed the glorious city, the seat of the joy of their hearts."

A god named Merodach now bound together a foundation before the waters, made dust and poured it out with the flood. Then comes the single line: "He made mankind." Then followed the beasts of the field and the living creatures of the desert, the Tigris and the Euphrates which he set in their places and "proclaimed their name well" (said in effect that the creation was good, as in Genesis). He (apparently it is still Merodach) then created grass, the plants of the marshes, the forests, oxen and other cattle and sheep. Then "lord Merodach" raised a bank (literally "filled a filling") on the seashore and the things not formerly in existence were created by him.

Such is the story in outline as told by Mr. Pinches. He found a few parallels with the Biblical account. For instance, lines 25-29 on the tablet translated are:

"Grass, the marsh-plant, the reed, and the forest he made,

"He made the verdure of the plain,
 "The lands, the marsh, the thicket also,
 "Oxen, the young of the steer, the humped
 cow and her calf, the sheep of the fold,
 "Meadows and forests also."

Which may be compared with Genesis i.,
 11-12:—

"And God said, Let the earth bring forth
 grass, herb yielding seed, and fruit-tree bearing
 fruit after its kind, wherein is the seed thereof,
 upon the earth, and it was so. And the earth
 brought forth grass, herb yielding seed after its
 kind, and tree bearing fruit, wherein is the seed
 thereof, after its kind; and God saw that it was
 good."

There are however few similarities, and Mr.
 Pinches is probably right in saying that few
 will contend that the Biblical story was
 based upon this one. That some of the ideas
 contained in the Bible version were incor-
 porated greatly changed from the versions
 which we know existed in Babylon in very
 ancient times, Mr. Pinches regarded as ex-
 ceedingly probable. This probability is in-
 creased by the fact now abundantly proved
 that Egypt at the time of Moses was not an
 isolated nation, but was in comparatively
 free communication with Babylon.

While this oldest Babylonian legend makes
 no attempt to fix the time of the creation,
 there was not wanting evidence before the
 Congress which pushes back the date of
 man's earliest habitation of the earth to an
 age so far antedating the days when most of
 us supposed the serpent tempted Eve that
 we are compelled to put some thousands
 more years between us and the Garden of
 Eden. The announcement is not new that
 discoveries even in western Europe have car-
 ried back man's antiquity to a period of even
 geological remoteness—to the time of the
 mammoth and the rhinoceros. Rude stone
 implements found with the remains of these
 creatures of prehistoric times tell of human
 intelligence in days so remote that not even
 legend or mythology has brought us a hint
 of their existence.

Other evidences of this so-called palæo-
 lithic age were presented to the Congress,
 including ancient stone implements from
 Egypt, Syria, India, and Tasmania. These
 primitive implements belonged to a time
 when the human mind possessed not suffi-
 cient intelligence to add handles to the tools
 and weapons. It marked a great era of
 progress when this simple but effective im-

provement had been invented. Across Egypt
 have been found the traces of the stone age
 giving way to the neolithic period with its
 copper and bronze tools. It is not surprising
 that the discussion of these recordless ages
 so far distant that the days of Moses and the
 pyramids were more remote from them in one
 direction than they are from us in the other,
 should have developed appreciative tributes
 to the genius of Darwin. What wonder that
 Professor Müller was led to say, "The
 science of language, the science of mythol-
 ogy, the science of religion, ay, the science of
 thought, all have assumed a new aspect,
 chiefly through the discoveries of oriental
 scholars, who have placed facts in the place
 of theories, and displayed before us the his-
 torical development of the human race, as a
 worthy rival of the natural development of
 nations displayed before our eyes by the
 genius and patient labors of Darwin."

It has been known to geologists for some
 years that a great sea formerly separated
 Europe and Asia. The boundaries of that
 ancient ocean have been so far determined
 that a map indicating approximately its
 shores was exhibited to the orientlists by
 Mr. Stuart Glennie. The present Aral, Cas-
 pian, and Black Seas were the deeper basins
 of the great expanse of waters now disap-
 peared. The latest opinion is that this sea
 may have existed at so recent a period geo-
 logically, but so remote a period historically,
 as that which immediately preceded the colo-
 nization of the valleys of the Euphrates and
 the Nile by Aryan or white races. These
 points formed the basis of a discussion of the
 subject of the cradleland of the Aryans by
 Mr. Glennie. He made no suggestion of a
 possible connection between this Eurasian
 Mediterranean and the story of the Deluge.
 He argued first that ancient ethnographical
 portraits, still more ancient traditions, and
 recent ethnographical observations compel to
 the conclusion that the ruling classes of the
 Egyptians and the Chaldeans had the char-
 acteristics of a white race. The first positive
 historical knowledge of the Aryans which we
 have is of their appearance in Thrace and
 Transoxiana about 1500 B. C. But if these,
 as the latest evidence seems to show, were
 the secondary centers of dispersion of the
 western and eastern Aryans respectively,
 then the first point of origin must have been
 a region from which they could easily have
 migrated to Thrace and Transoxiana. Such

a region was southern Russia after the disappearance of the great sea. The white and yellow races of Asia would naturally pour into these great plains and in the course of centuries a new variety of the white race, such as became the Aryans of history, would have been produced.

Mr. Glennie's theory was then that the valleys of the Nile and Euphrates were originally colonized by a white race, the ancestors of the Aryans, which he termed "Archaian" and which were historically far older than either the Semites or the Aryans. This ancient race descending from the north while the great sea still made Europe an island must have come from Asia. When that sea disappeared, others of the same race settled the plains which had been the bed of an ocean and eventually developed into the Aryans of history.

It is perhaps unfair to describe Mr. Glennie's version of the early history of the white race as a mere theory. He presented scientific and other evidence in support of all the points he made—evidence and authority which I am unable even to summarize in an article of such wide scope as the present one. It is a wonderful coincidence, however, that another investigator starting from another standpoint and following another line of evidence reached precisely the same conclusion. He presented the result of his research to another section of the congress in a paper summarizing his work in China and the Chinese language.

The Rev. Dr. Edkins affirmed that Chinese is an older type than any other known language. It is the richest in old letters and poorest in new. Egyptian, Tibetan, and Tartar followed it. The Semitic type follows these three in age, but Hebrew and other Semitic languages are youthful compared with these. The basis of Semitic speech was Asiatic. There are Tartar, Tibetan, and Egyptian contributions to the Semitic language, growing out of the nomad life of the Semitic race down to the time of the exodus. China has preserved the old roots of Tartar, Semitic, Egyptian, and Aryan languages in a specially complete form. Chinese, for instance, teaches that *homo*, "man," was not formed from *humus*, "the ground," as Cicero and Varro judged, but means "the brave one," "the noble one," in Chinese *hiung*, "brave," from *hom*, in Mongol, *humun*, "man." This word grew up in E-Jan.

Northern Asia as a word for man and is an honorific term. Dr. Edkins' conclusions are: "But while the Chinese race is so old, it comes from the west as its early history shows. Mankind originated in western rather than in eastern Asia, but the type of primeval man is found in Eastern Asia now. The languages are one and the races one. The black and the white are modifications of the yellow, and there need not at first have been more than one human pair."

To epitomize then the consensus of latest scientific and oriental opinion: The cradle-land of the race, the Garden of Eden if it be so designated, was located near the shores of a great ancient sea in Western Asia. Man's days upon earth outnumber by thousands of years the brief span in terrestrial history which we have been taught to ascribe to him.

Coming down for a moment to the modern and familiar days of the Sphinx and the Pyramids, let me say that a vast amount of cumulative knowledge of Egyptian history was contributed to the congress. We know now the life of the Pharaohs and the Egyptians as well as we do that of the Caesars and the Romans. The question of the Pharaoh of the Exodus was again discussed by the congress. The Rev. Professor Hechler presented an elaborate and interesting argument to prove that Thothmes III. and not Rameses II. was the despot who refused to let God's people go and that Queen Makara Hatasu, daughter of Thothmes I., was the princess who rescued Moses from the bulrushes.

Nothing produced before the Oriental Congress will have so much interest for the religious world as the most ancient papyrus yet discovered of a portion of the LXX. or Septuagint version of the Old Testament. This translation—the first made on a large scale in all literature—was begun under Ptolemy Philadelphus about 280 B. C. and finished about 150 B. C. It was the version most frequently quoted by Christ and His disciples. The recovered manuscript came into the possession of the Rev. Professor Hechler, chaplain of the British Embassy at Vienna, a few weeks ago. It comprises sixteen sheets written on both sides, or thirty-two pages about ten inches by seven, and in a very fair state of preservation. The matter is the greater part of the book of Zechariah beginning with the fourth chapter and parts of the book of Malachi. Professor Hechler as the result of his examination of

the papyrus declares that its great antiquity is proved by the uncial characters in which it is written and the absence of divisions between the words. He places its date at well before 300 A. D. There is no doubt, he says, that the original scribe had an excellent copy of the LXX. before him. There are for example readings which are wanting in many Septuagint manuscripts. In fact, Professor Hechler did not hesitate to affirm that the papyrus is the oldest manuscript of the Bible known to exist. One of the leaves held between glass plates was exhibited to the members of the congress. It bore a portion of the twelfth chapter of Zechariah from the second to the eighth verses, both partially inclusive. This is a faithful translation of the two sides of the sheet :

"nations round about, and in Judea there shall be a siege against Jerusalem. (3) And it shall come to pass in that day that I will make Jerusalem a stone trodden down to all the nations: every one that tramples on it mocking is mocked, and there shall be gathered together against it all the nations of the earth. (4) In that day, saith the Lord Almighty, I will smite every horse with amazement, and his rider with madness; but upon the house of Juda I will open mine eyes and all [the] horses of the nations I will smite with blindness. (5) And the captains of thousands of Juda shall say in their hearts: We shall find for ourselves the inhabitants of Jerusalem in the Lord Almighty their God. (6) In that day I will make the captains of thousands of Juda a firebrand among wood and as a torch of fire in stubble; and they devour on the right hand and on the left all the nations round about; and Jerusalem shall dwell again by herself. (7) And the Lord shall save the tents of Juda as at the beginning, that the boast of the house of David may not magnify itself, and the pride of the inhabitants of Jerusalem against Juda. (8) And it shall come to pass in that day, that the Lord shall defend the inhabitants of Jerusalem, and the weak one among them in that day shall be as David,—"

There is opportunity in a review of this nature only to mention the recent discoveries in Palestine as described in a paper by the Rev. Haskett Smith on Syrian research since 1886. Some light, he says, has been thrown upon

the vexed question of the direction of the second city wall, upon which depends greatly the identity of the site of Calvary. Three fragments of ancient wall have been discovered, the indications afforded by them tending to weaken the claims of the Church of the Holy Sepulcher and to strengthen those of El-Heidhemiyeh, the hill above Jeremiah's grotto. The site of the Pool of Bethesda has been fixed near the Church of St. Anne. Many rock-cut tombs have been opened, including a remarkable series of sepulchers and passages on the Mount of Olives, partly Jewish and partly Christian. An important tomb has been found on land belonging to Greek monks to the west of the city and identified by them as the tomb of Amos, but others believe it to be that of Mariamne, wife of Herod the Great.

In their promises for the future the announcements made to the Oriental Congress are most fascinating. The very latest discovery and one of greater importance than that of the tables at Tel-el-Amarna, which have restored to us the earliest chapters of Canaanite history more than a century before Joshua's conquest, has been made by Messrs. Flinders, Petrie, and Bliss, who have found the remains of the ancient Amorite city of Lachish. They have already uncovered many remarkable antiquities, including a tablet bearing cuneiform, or arrowlike (the very oldest) inscriptions and some ancient Babylonian cylinders. More than that, Mr. Bliss has penetrated within the entrance of the archive chamber of the ancient city and before long the great collection of tablets with which it was stored will probably be in our hands. These will indeed be priceless treasures, outranking in value all that we now possess of ancient history. Orientalists may well tremble with impatience while we wait for the great revelations at hand.

The world in the vigor of its latter day development is to renew its youth. Some of the forgotten wisdom of its early days is to be restored to it. The story is waiting to be told. Before the twentieth century dawns we shall know more about the humanity of the ages than all the libraries in Christendom now reveal.

RAILWAY DEVELOPMENT IN CANADA.

BY A. R. DAVIS, C. E.

THE subject of transportation in its various phases by the methods and means employed is of so great importance in the economy of nations that it necessarily demands more thought and study than any other question with which the general public has to deal.

Following in the line of all progressive countries, Canada has been confronted with the problem, rendered peculiarly difficult of solution in her case on account of the broad expanse of territory embraced within the confines of the several provinces comprising the British American possessions; and has succeeded in overcoming the chief difficulties which have presented themselves, notwithstanding the fact that her population has been small and widely scattered.

True, nature generously provided a grand highway two thousand miles westward from the waters of the Atlantic by means of a majestic river and a beautiful chain of lakes; but in order to render such serviceable for commerce it was necessary to construct 70½ miles of canal at an enormous cost. While an outlet to the ocean was recognized as of vital importance to the western provinces, especially Ontario, in order to their development and growth, the scarcity of money in the provinces where but little wealth had as yet accumulated rendered the completion of the canals impossible for many years. Their completion would give vessels from Montreal access to the headwaters of Lake Superior, west of which a comparatively unknown country, over which the buffalo roamed with freedom and security, stretched away to the supposed impassable barriers of the Rocky Mountains. Beyond the Rockies, British Columbia nestled quietly in her foothills and valleys and fanned by the Pacific winds enjoyed communication with the southern coast and occasionally with England. She was not prosperous, but apparently happy and contented; and not until the whistle of the steam locomotive was heard reverberating through the mountains in the last decade did she awaken from her lethargy and begin active operations toward the development of her vast resources.

Before the canal system, which proved to be of incalculable utility in the development of the commerce of the country, was completed, a new era dawned upon the world, signalized by the introduction of the railway locomotive. Canada following closely the example of several European countries and the United States, introduced the locomotive in the year 1837 which was one of the most crucial periods in the history of the country. An internecine war broke out during the year in what is now the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, led by MacKenzie and Papineau, whose names afterwards became notorious. After a serious loss of life and destruction of property the government succeeded in stamping out the rebellion, the effects of which were felt for many years afterwards.

Also an impending financial panic was brooding over the land threatening to bury its poisonous talons in the vitals of the struggling commerce of the country as it had already done in the republic to the south. That it did not prove as direful in its results as was anticipated in the British provinces may be for the most part attributed to the more substantial basis, as compared with the United States, upon which the banks, modeled after those of England, were founded.

As a rule the banks stood the severe strain upon them and the country gradually emerged from the crisis with renewed determination to strengthen the hands of government and to bring to pass the enactment of such legislation as would render another rebellion undesirable as well as impossible.

With the single exception of the recent Indian uprising in the northwest territories, which was speedily quelled although far away from the seat of government, there has been no recurrence of such up to the present time.

The railway era was inaugurated in Canada by the building of a line in the present province of Quebec 16 miles in length from Laprairie on the River St. Lawrence to St. Johns on the River Richelieu. It was at first used as a horse railway, but as stated above the locomotive was placed upon it in 1837.

In 1839 a railway was built from Queenston

to Chippewa, which was also used as a horse railway, but was shortly afterwards abandoned on account of the steep grades. The Lachine railway running westerly from Montreal was begun in 1846.

In the year 1850 when Lady Elgin, wife of the governor general, turned the first sod of the Northern Railway destined to extend from Toronto to Collingwood on Georgian Bay, a distance of 96 miles, there were only 71 miles of railway in operation in the whole country. The remarkable activity now displayed by the United States in projecting and constructing railways convinced the government and people of Canada that the canal system which had been accomplishing the desired end, viz., securing its proportion of the carrying trade from the Canadian and American west to Montreal was no longer adequate to meet the public requirements; and that railways must necessarily be built to act as feeders thereto if Canada maintained her position as a freight-carrier in a thoroughly active competition with the United States. This fact was tersely expressed by the Hon. A. T. Galt in the following words: "Unless Canada could combine with her unrivaled inland navigation a railroad system connected therewith and mutually sustaining each other, the whole of her large outlay (in canals) must forever remain unproductive."

With this fact before them the statesmen and capitalists of the country concentrated their best thought and efforts toward the realization of a line of railway from the St. Clair River on the west to Halifax on the east.

The maritime provinces were endeavoring to raise capital in order to build railroads and were fully alive to the importance of a connection with the provinces in the west.

In New Brunswick a railway 88 miles long, known as the New Brunswick and Canada Railway, was begun in 1844.

In Nova Scotia a line from Halifax to Truro, 60 miles in length, with a branch to Windsor on the Bay of Fundy, 33 miles in length, was begun about the same time by the provincial government and opened for traffic in 1858. The latter had approached the home government upon the question of the guarantee of a loan to construct a military line of railway from Halifax to Quebec. The proposition was favorably considered and the required guarantee assured.

Acting upon this the Hon. Francis

Hincks carried an act in the Canadian Parliament in 1851 by which the governor was authorized to secure, if possible, a similar guarantee of a loan for an extension of the line westward from Quebec to Detroit; and to make arrangements with the maritime governments to begin at once the construction thereof in the various provinces. The scheme as a whole was not looked upon as favorably by the imperial government as was anticipated, and Mr. Hincks was doomed to a temporary disappointment. The legislation enacted however paved the way to what afterwards developed into two great railway systems, viz.: the Intercolonial and the Grand Trunk. The latter was destined to be constructed first, although the former bade fair in their inception to lead the way.

Mr. Hincks was indefatigable in his efforts to enlist English sympathy and capital, and the following year had the satisfaction of seeing the Grand Trunk Railway Company formed in England with a large amount of capital at their command. The railway was projected to run west from Montreal to the St. Clair River and east through Maine to Portland, with a branch from Richmond to Quebec.

The Canada provinces granted £3,000 sterling per mile to the company, or £40,000 for every £100,000 actually expended on construction. Work was actively begun, and in 1855 was completed east of Montreal and west to Brockville. The company became financially embarrassed in that year, and the government came to their aid with a bonus of £900,000 sterling. The line was subsequently extended to Sarnia, and after the Victoria Bridge, spanning the St. Lawrence at Montreal, 9,184 feet in length, with 25 spans, costing in all \$7,000,000—the world's greatest wonder in bridges at that period—was completed in December, 1859, traffic was carried over the entire 1,600 miles of road.

Meantime the Great Western Railway had been opened from Suspension Bridge via Hamilton to Windsor, opposite Detroit, with branches to Sarnia, Guelph, and Toronto, a total of 350 miles.

Some other less important lines were built making a total length in operation in 1860 of 2,087 miles, or an increase during the decade of 2,016 miles, a remarkably fair showing considering that the population of the Canadas at that period was only two and a half millions.

The population of all British America in 1860 was but three and one third millions, or about the same as that of the United States when she achieved her independence.

The Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 with the United States, the abundant crops with which Providence blessed the land, and the extremely high prices for all the products of the soil, owing principally to the excessive demands by European countries, on account of the Crimean War, all combined to create a high tide of prosperity throughout the entire country such as had never been experienced before. The governments of the various provinces began to manifest higher aspirations than had characterized them in the past. The consolidation of all the provinces under one federal government which would control all matters relating in common to all the provinces such as revenue and expenditure, administration of justice, militia, public works, harbors and fisheries, postal service, etc., while the local legislatures retained control of schools, asylums, penitentiaries, public lands, local works, taxation for provincial purposes, etc., was discussed by the statesmen of the various provinces. A convention was called and a basis of union formulated to which agreement was subsequently made after numerous amendments, and on the first day of July, 1867, the four provinces, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, were by the "British North American Act" confederated into the Dominion of Canada, with Ottawa as the seat of government.

At that period there were 2,495 miles of railway constructed at a total cost of \$134,000,000 in all the provinces, of which Canada, or Ontario and Quebec, had 2,148 miles, Nova Scotia 133 miles, and New Brunswick 214 miles.

Now one of the fundamental conditions of confederation was the building of the Intercolonial Railway from Quebec to Truro, where connection would be made with the road already constructed to Halifax. Ten and one half million dollars had been expended thereon prior to confederation. The Imperial government now guaranteed a loan of £3,000,000 sterling and active operations were begun for bringing its construction to a speedy conclusion. In the meantime Prince Edward Island in 1873 doffed its hat and entered confederation and the federal government took over and completed the 154½ miles

of railway extending from end to end of the island, with extensions amounting in all to 211 miles. It was opened for traffic in 1875. British Columbia awakened from her sleep and knocked at the door of confederation in 1871 and was gladly admitted. Manitoba was erected into a province; and all the northwest, formerly governed and controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company for over two hundred years, was acquired by the Dominion government in 1870, by the payment of £300,000 sterling to the company,—the latter reserving 50,000 acres contiguous to their trading posts in addition to one twentieth of the land in the fertile belt south of the North Saskatchewan River.

One of the conditions of the agreement with British Columbia on the part of the Dominion was "to secure the commencement simultaneously within two years after the date of the union, of the construction of a railway from the Pacific toward the Rocky Mountains, and from such point as might be selected east of the Rocky Mountains toward the Pacific to connect the seaboard of British Columbia with the railway system of Canada; and further to secure the completion of such railway within ten years from the date of the union."

The legislation of that period was the inauguration of the development of the western part of Canada that has progressed with such wonderful rapidity in recent years. It was the inception of the Canadian Pacific Railway, destined to become an important factor in the future prosperity of Canada. Agreeably to the conditions of the contract the government succeeded in interesting a strong company of capitalists who agreed to construct the road on certain conditions in the specified time. On account of certain disclosures made in Parliament in reference to the contract entered into between the government and Sir Hugh Allan, the president of the company, the Macdonald government fell and the Mackenzie administration held the reins of power for five years, or until the year 1878. The company consequently dissolved and the government carried on the work of surveys and construction itself in a desultory and perfunctory manner until it was relieved from further duty by the return of Sir John Macdonald to power upon the tidal wave of 1878.

In 1881 another strong financial company was formed which agreed to complete the road

in ten years. The government granted a subsidy of \$25,000,000 and a land subsidy of 25,000,000 acres in alternate sections for a width of twenty miles on either side of the line of railway. The government had already expended \$21,000,000 on the road in the past, which sections were handed over to the company on certain conditions.

The construction was prosecuted with such wonderful rapidity that on June 28, 1886, six years before the specified time in the contract, the first overland train left Montreal for the Pacific Coast distant 2,906 miles, and reached its destination without a single mishap. The total advancement by the government toward the construction of the C. P. R. up to the present time (1892) has been \$61,977,947.69.

In the year 1886 a final agreement was arrived at by which the government accepted the work performed by the company; and the latter took over the sections completed by the former with some minor reservations which were subsequently adjusted.

The first through train was soon afterwards followed by the special train of the aged premier of Canada, who, known as the "Father of Confederation," may very justly also be called the Father of the Canadian Pacific Railway. He was accompanied by his wife, Lady Macdonald, and a few intimate friends. The grandeur of the Rockies created such an excitement and rapture that a seat upon the front of the engine had to be arranged for Sir John and his wife, from which point of unobscured view they beheld and admired the ever-changing scenery of those wonderful mountains.

The building of the Canadian Pacific Railroad has done more in bringing the name of Canada prominently and favorably before the attention of the world than perhaps any other single cause; and although the strain was heavy upon her finances entailing an increase of indebtedness of \$62,000,000 upon the succeeding generations, there is not a citizen to-day in Canada, when contemplating the wonderful progress and prosperity of the west, but must admit the government was justified in the expenditure.

The English directors of the Grand Trunk Railway became suddenly aroused to the importance of extensions and better equipment if they were to maintain a fair proportion of the carrying trade of the country. Branch lines were rapidly thrown out in directions where

the traffic was likely to be monopolized by the Canadian Pacific Railroad; new connections and terminals were secured; the road bed was greatly improved and plans laid for double-tracking the main line from Montreal to Chicago; the rolling stock, especially the passenger cars, became elegantly equipped; the officials became more courteous and obliging—in fact in every respect the management improved and the road became far more satisfactory to all its patrons. Instead of the gross receipts decreasing, owing to the presence of a rival railway system, they rapidly increased as the road expanded.

The government railways proper were extended in the maritime provinces and desirable connections made as the trade of the country developed. The main line of the Intercolonial from Lévis opposite Quebec to Halifax, 675 miles, with the branch from Moncton to St. John, New Brunswick, 89 miles, and the Windsor Branch, Nova Scotia, 32 miles, had been completed and equipped in a very creditable manner. Branches were built to Pictou, Pointe du Chêne, Dalhousie, Indian town, together with numerous wharf branches; while recently an important extension has been made from Oxford to New Glasgow and extending easterly to the Gut of Canso, 150 miles, where a ferry transfers from Port Mulgrave to Point Tupper, a distance of one mile. From thence the line extends across Cape Breton, 92 miles to Sydney, the most easterly ocean port on the continent, being only 2,250 miles from Liverpool or 800 miles nearer that city than is New York. It possesses a beautiful natural harbor, always free from ice, which may become in the near future the terminus of a European line of steamers making connection with fast through trains to Chicago and the west rendering Sydney on the Atlantic a formidable rival of Vancouver on the Pacific.

The government of Canada consequently now owns, maintains, and operates 1,397½ miles of railway which have necessitated a total expenditure up to the 30th of June 1891, of \$57,369,582.57 or an average of \$41,851 per mile. The working expenses for the past year were \$3,920,332.02; while the gross earnings amounted to but \$3,151,653.43, showing a loss in operation of \$768,678.59.

The amount of annual loss to the country will naturally be reduced as the earnings increase over the recently constructed extensions but since the Canadian Pacific Railroad

has made direct connection with Halifax by means of the Short Line Railway from Montreal to St. John, with running powers over the Intercolonial from thence to Halifax—thus shortening the distance between Montreal and Halifax by 93 miles—it is not probable that the earnings of government railways will ever equal or exceed their working expenses. However, they have served in developing the resources, expanding the commerce, and blending the various isolated provinces into a united Dominion.

Independent companies stimulated by the activity of the trunk lines in construction were encouraged to build feeders thereto in the various provinces, generally in a northerly and southerly direction opening new mineral, timber, and agricultural regions, which as a rule have proved profitable investments. The result was manifested in 1890 by a total of 13,256 miles of railway in operation or an increase of 6,365 miles during the decade, a most remarkable era in the history of Canada. The fifty-four railways included in the above mileage had a paid-up capital amounting to \$786,447,811. Their gross earnings in 1890 were \$46,843,826 and their working expenses \$32,913,350 leaving \$13,930,476 net earnings.

The total number of passengers carried was 12,821,262 and of freight carried 20,787,469 tons; while the total train mileage was 41,849,329.

The freight traffic receipts were 63.87 per cent, and the passenger traffic 29.31 per cent of the total; while of the expenditure 44.45 per cent was for working and repairs, 33.43 per

cent for general working expenses, and 21.86 per cent for maintenance of way.

The average cost per mile of all the completed railways in Canada is \$56,158 which compared with other countries is below that of European but above that of the United States railways, the latter averaging \$54,301 per mile.

Among the many projects contemplated we may with a considerable degree of confidence look forward to the completion of the Chignecto Ship Railway, which will elevate, transport, and lower ships and vessels from the Bay of Fundy to Northumberland Strait across an isthmus 17 miles wide; of at least two extra bridges spanning the St. Lawrence, one at Quebec, the other at Kingston, the latter giving unbroken connection between Ontario and New York; of another ship railway between Georgian Bay and Lake Ontario over which the grain-laden vessels from Chicago, Duluth, and Port Arthur will find their way to Montreal; of another tunnel under the St. Clair River; of a line between Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay, at the latter terminus of which the elevators will supply ships with cargoes of Manitoba wheat for Liverpool; for a direct line from Calgary through the Crow's Nest Pass over the Rockies to the Pacific Coast; to numerous northerly and southerly lines in Manitoba and the northwest, crossing the International Boundary and connecting with the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific; and to numerous ramifications into the outlying districts in all the provinces from the Atlantic to the Pacific, acting as feeders to the trunk lines.

SPOKEN LITERATURE.

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

LITERATURE is defined in the Century Dictionary as "recorded thought or knowledge." This implies that all literary work first appears in the form of manuscript or printed matter. This also implies that literature is placed before the public in the form of books, newspapers, or magazines. We read it ourselves or listen while others read it. Now a portion of the literature produced every year is not intended to be printed at all. For instance, nearly all sermons are first written in manuscript, but

appear before the public in the form of spoken words. A sermon may be a fine piece of literary work and yet never be read in print. A sermon, a plea before a jury, a speech or oration, may, therefore, be said to be "spoken literature," or literature published by word of mouth.

Spoken literature began before letters were invented. The poets, the story-tellers, and minstrels repeated their songs, stories, and historical tales before the listening multitude, and all literature was handed down from

generation to generation by word of mouth. The oldest literature was, no doubt, largely made up of the records of poems and tales composed by persons who long antedated the first writers. The speaker who repeats from memory the words of others or who uses his own words to carry thought or knowledge has a very great advantage over print. The voice, the manner, the personal charm of the speaker, add a new interest to the literary matter and so long as men exist there will be a demand for spoken literature. We all prefer to hear a sermon or oration spoken by the writer and seldom ask for a printed copy afterwards. Within the past few years increased attention has been given to literature intended to be spoken or recited. This is plainly shown in the increase in the number of public readers or reciters and in the growing interest in all forms of dramatic literature. Instruction in schools and colleges is also more and more by word of mouth or in the form of lectures. Our literary men and women find profit in reading their writings aloud and the public find pleasure in listening to unpublished literary work.

In view of these things it may be worth while briefly to examine the conditions and limitations under which spoken literature must be both written and published. The thought or knowledge must be indeed first recorded in some form. Its publication is wholly by word of mouth before the listeners. Therefore it must be written to be spoken and written to be heard by an audience. These two points are wholly distinct, for while the matter to be read aloud may be easy for the reader or speaker, it may be very hard for the listener. The reader may amble delightfully through a long poem or story and enjoy it, while the listener may be infinitely bored by the recital.

First, of the audience. The average limit of sustained attention in an audience is about twenty minutes. Thirty minutes demand an effort, and sixty minutes are more than any body of listeners will give to any speaker or reader, however interesting the literary work. Audiences can and do every night give attention to spoken literature for from two to three hours, but they demand a complete rest every thirty or forty minutes and will not give sustained attention for even thirty minutes, unless assisted by frequent short pauses. To listen with attention for more than twenty minutes there must be inter-

ruptions about every ten minutes. The attention, strained upon the subject before the listener, seems to be fatigued in from ten to twelve minutes and must be given an instant's rest. Those little pauses every few minutes make it possible to give strict attention for about forty-five minutes and then the attention seems to demand a complete stop of from one to five minutes. To sustain the attention for two hours there must be these frequent short pauses mingled with longer pauses every quarter or half hour.

Allied to this limitation of attention is the mental capacity of an audience in grasping the matter presented to it, and this depends wholly on the ability to remember what is said. Spoken literature is like music. It exists only when performed. Its whole value consists in remembering the notes or spoken words just as they reach the ear in a succession of sounds. Only one note or one word reaches the ear at a time and the sense of the words or the beauty of the melody depends largely upon the memory. A story repeated aloud before an audience is unconsciously committed to memory by the listeners and it is the recalling or recollection of the scenes, events, and characters at the end that gives the greatest charm to the recital.

This power of recalling, or capacity of keeping the subject, scenes, events, and characters of a story in mind, or the capacity to hold the threads of a discourse or the arguments of a speech is, in the average audience, extremely limited. One scene and not over four characters seem to be the limit of capacity in an audience listening to a single story which consumes twenty or thirty minutes in recital. If more scenes and characters are used they must be placed in short parts or chapters of not over twenty minutes each. It is doubtful if any reader can keep the attention of an audience for an hour with a story of more than two scenes and six characters unless there are two or more complete pauses in the story.

There are also limitations in the art of public reading or recital, depending largely on the individual, his or her voice and physical and mental endurance. Frequent pauses, varying from a few seconds to several minutes, are essential in any effort of this kind and the more carefully these rests are timed and arranged the greater the ease in the performance and the greater the pleasure of the listener.

These limitations on the part of the speaker and the listeners impose certain conditions upon the subject, style, and characters of all literature written to be spoken in public. The best style is one that is simple, straightforward, direct, with short words, short sentences, and short paragraphs or verses. The Book of Psalms is full of splendid examples of good style in spoken literature. It reads precisely as if written to be spoken. Some of the Psalms seem even to have been spoken before they were written. Parts of Washington Irving's "History of New York" make examples of bad style. The opening paragraph of Chapter I., Book 3, is an instance. It is difficult to read aloud and still more difficult to follow with attention.

Episodes, digressions from the main thread of the story, and all parentheses are disadvantages and injure the style of spoken literature, because it is a tax on the listener's memory to keep the thread or theme of the story in mind while the speaker wanders off upon a side track. In reading from print we may turn back the pages and pick up the broken thread. In listening to a story there can be no going back, and the mind of the listener must retain all that has gone before in order to understand and enjoy the climax or *finale* of the story. The episode will impose an unnecessary delay in the story, tax the memory and attention, and produce weariness and thus destroy the pleasure we take in the performance. An involved, wandering, flowery, discursive, even a dull or stupid, style may be read in print, but will not be listened to by an audience. A series of prosy sermons will keep people away from church. An involved, complicated, and tiresome plea may lose a case in court. Politeness may lead an audience to sit through a badly written story, but they will not come again to hear that particular story.

The subjects suitable for spoken literature are first of all stories, then biographical or historical narrations, and lastly argumentative, doctrinal, and political subjects. Mechanical descriptions, formulas, or directions for work or construction are wholly unavailable in spoken literature. Mere lists of reasons or battles and any data are useless.

The best subject for publication before an audience is the story, and a brief examination of the requirements of the spoken story

will perhaps best illustrate the underlying principles upon which all spoken literature should be written. The best form is the short story requiring from fifteen to twenty minutes for its recital. If longer, it should be divided into parts or chapters, each consuming from five to ten or twelve minutes. A short story should have but one scene fully described at the beginning and not over four characters; two would be better still. If three scenes are used, it will be found an advantage to use one twice, say, the first and last scene being the same.

There should be a variety of characters. A story about three men is not so likely to please as one concerning two men and one woman, or one old man, one young woman, and a child. Contrasts stimulate the imagination of the listener and enable him to remember the characters more easily. A story concerning a poor young man, a rich young girl, and an old man or a young child or an old woman is more interesting than one about four girls all poor or all rich, or all dull or all bright. Even stature, costume, personal appearance, manner, and language may all be used to heighten the contrasts between the characters. Each character must be individual, must be sharply defined and distinct, for all these things aid the memory and increase the interest of the listener and thus enhance the pleasure derived from the recital.

A recited story should consist of three distinct parts. The first is the introduction of the characters to show who they are and their relations to each other. This point must come at the very beginning before any real "action" begins, because this part must be committed to the listeners' memory. The audience at the start is ready and even anxious to hear the story. It wants the facts first, and the more vivid and clear this first statement the greater the pleasure derived from the recital. However, the first part must be short. The middle portion, or the real action of the story, must follow as quickly as possible in order not to fatigue the listeners or distract their attention with irrelevant or unnecessary details. The action of the story is the part that concerns the events that befall the characters. It springs out of their relations to each other, out of their motives, aims, and desires and makes the longer part of the story. The third part, or end, shows the effects of these actions or events upon the character of the persons concerned

in the story. The listeners see the result, as it were, of the action of the characters of the story in their own actual characters. In the *finale*, or conclusion of the whole matter, the listeners' sense of justice must be satisfied. The outcome of the events and doings of the people must satisfy the general sense of right or wrong in the listeners' minds. It must be lifelike, natural, reasonable, and according to human experience.

The monologue or spoken story is rapidly becoming one of the most popular forms of public entertainment and instruction. In the short story may be taught all good lessons in morals, honor, duty, love, and life. The story should have no moral at the end. It should teach and inspire by its charm, its vivid appeal to the imagination, its unspoken truth. Its moral should be between the lines. Its power over the minds and hearts of men and women far exceeds the power of any printed words.

In conclusion it may be remarked that an ordinary public speech or oration or a reading from Shakespeare often exceeds two hours without apparent pause and that in such readings many characters and scenes are introduced and in a speech many subjects are treated. An examination of any play used for public reading will show that the acts and scenes into which it is divided practically reduce the work to a series of short scenes or stories each complete in itself with a distinct pause at the end. Moreover, Hamlet is practically a story of one character, just as Macbeth is a story of two characters. All the others are relatively of less value and this assists the listener in holding the whole group and the series of short stories in mind and

enables him to group it as a whole. In a speech the effect of a pause or rest is obtained by a change of voice and manner, in a great number of little stops of a few seconds each, and in a skillful variation in the aspect under which the subject is treated.

To illustrate the use of a change of scene or characters in a story for the purpose of securing rests and pauses, the writer may mention a monologue written by him specially for public recital. It is a story of one chief character (assumed by the impersonator or reciter) and two minor characters, and consumes two hours in its recital. It is divided into sixteen parts or scenes varying from three to twelve minutes, with a complete stop between each. In eight of these pauses the performer leaves the platform and in four of them makes a complete change of costume. At the beginning of each chapter, or part where the story moves to another place, the performer briefly describes the scene of the story (twenty words are sufficient for this) and the change of scene occurs nine times in the course of the story. The audience follows all these changes because each scene is distinct and each is complete in itself and the imagination of the listener is aided by the change of costume and by changes in the furniture and properties used.

This form of spoken literature is very popular in France and in England, the best writers and the most skillful readers using the monologue as a means of reaching the people. In this country two or three public readers have already taken it up with great advantage to the writers and to the audiences in lecture and lyceum courses, and as a result with profit to themselves.

HOMES OF THE POOR.

BY ALFRED T. WHITE.

NO external conditions so influence the lives of the poor in great cities as do the character and surroundings of their homes, and there are none over which they have so little control. The poorer they are the less choice they have. Health, happiness, and morality all suffer through over-crowding, and still the rush from country to city continues and the tide of emigration leaves its most undesirable de-

posits in the most densely populated centers.

It seems incomprehensible, at first, in a country where land can be had as a free gift from the government to *bona fide* settlers, that able-bodied men with families should be willing to stay in crowded cities, where the health and morals of their children are threatened every hour and where the first requisites of home life are out of their reach. But the poor are most reluctant to change occu-

pations or habits of life; they are sociable and like to meet their friends, and they even enjoy the crowds until the pressure pinches, and then escape is cut off. A more compulsory cause, one which governs many hundred thousand poor people in the city of New York, is found in the cost of car fares and the loss of working time to those who live out of the city, and this bears with double or treble force if there are two or three wage-earners in the family; for ten cents a day for car fares comes to \$2.60 per month and that is about all a man can save in rent if he live in the suburbs of a great city instead of in the city itself. Now if there are a boy and a girl whose earnings are needed to supplement the parent's wages, here would be \$7.80 each month for the car fares of the three. And not only among the poorest classes, but among those earning a fair livelihood and living in comparative comfort, the average family has more than one breadwinner. By all these causes the tenement house has been developed. Rapid transit has relieved the pressure somewhat, but the building of tenement houses continues, and will continue till the tide from country to city is reversed.

It is fifty years since the first tenement house was built in New York, that is a house planned to hold a number of families, each living separately. From then for nearly thirty years such houses multiplied in number and degenerated in quality. The New York State statute of 1867 "for the regulation of tenement and lodging houses in the cities of New York and Brooklyn" marks the beginning of governmental attention to the evils that had grown up, as the "Report of the Council of Hygiene and Public Health of the Citizens' Association," in 1865, marks the increased public interest in the problems of peace as the problems of war approached their solution. Since that time the state has enacted laws limiting the percentage of any lot of land which may be built upon with a tenement house, prescribing height of ceilings and minimum of window areas, regulating air shafts and ventilation, and controlling plumbing, drainage, etc. Thus the tenements built in the last ten years show many improvements in construction over the earlier ones and the results can be noted in diminished death rates. Other states have followed in legislation the course of New York, and in many cities the old and the new tenement houses now present differing phases of the one great problem.

In 1864 there were 495,592 persons in New York City residing in 15,309 tenement houses; of these probably 12,000 houses are still in use, the others having been torn down to make room for the great warehouses with which the march of trade has invaded old residence quarters, poor as well as rich. In 1888 a tenement house census of New York City showed 32,390 such houses with a population in them of 1,093,701. The great East Side tenement district of New York has stood for years practically unchanged and nowhere in the old world or the new is there such an unbroken front of tall tenement houses on every street and in every direction as there.

It makes the heart sick to stand anywhere in the midst of it and to reflect that in each twenty-five feet of frontage on every floor there dwell usually four families, two in front and two in the rear. The one exterior room of each set serves as kitchen and living room, and back of it the bedrooms get a pittance of light and of impure air from little windows looking out upon the halls and through doors opening from room to room. In the recently constructed houses, of which there are but few in the poorer and older tenement house districts, the laws have compelled the provision of air shafts which materially improve ventilation of the apartments, although they bring the eyes and ears of different families in close and unpleasant proximity.

A common staircase is carried up through the center of each house, often so dark even in the newer houses that it is necessary to feel one's way in the middle of the day. This interior staircase extending from the ground to the top floor is of course the first part of the house to burn in case of fire, conveying the flames to the hallways on each floor and cutting off egress, except by the fire escapes, which are often useless. But these staircase shafts serve a no less dangerous purpose when there is no fire to mark the danger; they communicate from floor to floor and room to room the germs of disease which enter, it matters not how; they carry to every ear the foul language of the drunkard as he staggers up to his room; and on the narrow halls and stairs those who are still trying to preserve their self-respect are jostled by those who have lost it all. On a summer night when the rooms have become unbearable and half the population of a great tenement house is on the sidewalk panting for breath, the passer-by in some neighborhoods will wonder how purity of life

can survive in such enforced companionship. A single evil-minded person has the opportunity to poison the souls of a hundred or a thousand who cannot escape.

The best constructed tenement houses are not free from dangers, but the worst of them are nurseries of disease and crime, and their inhabitants repay with "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" the neglect of the community which allows such conditions to grow up and exist. The fever germ is carried from the little crowded apartment where disease is born to the great mansion on the Hill; the workman robbed becomes more easily a thief; the moral nature that has been poisoned poisons others in its turn.

It has been the custom of tenement house landlords to claim that tenants prefer dirt and foul air to cleanliness and sunlight, and that to give them any better accommodations would be simply to throw away money, for, it was said, the people would soon reduce them to the condition of the old tenements. Even ministers of the Gospel have at times talked of poverty and vices as if the two walked hand in hand, without recognizing the magnificent resistance to multifold temptations so often and so strikingly afforded by the lives of the poor. In reality, the virtues of the poor amid hardships and temptations unknown to the rich, their patience, their generosity, their charity, put to shame the unassembled goodness of the well-to-do.

But it would be as great a mistake to convey the idea that all the poor would appreciate and take care of better homes than they now occupy, as it has been to state that they live as they do from choice. The tendency to generalize about the poor, to consider them as a group or a mass, seems imbedded in the brain of the average man and has been a fatal impediment to most of the movements for the improvement of their conditions of life. Let any man stop theorizing and go to work among the laboring classes in their homes in any practical effort to lessen their distress and multiply their happiness, and he quickly learns that among those who are commonly lumped as the "lower classes" or "the poor" there are as many and as varied characteristics as among the rich. The poor are by no means always just to those who hold this world's goods more plentifully, but they do not misjudge the rich any more than, if as much as, the rich misjudge the poor.

It is safe to say that three fourths of the

poor who to-day live in ill-constructed and overcrowded houses would move to-morrow into well-built, well-lighted, well-ventilated houses, if the chance were offered them. Thus the moral faults which are born of their home surroundings lie upon the shoulders of those who will not help them to that chance, rather than on their own. It is not the landlords alone who are to blame; it is as well those who might become landlords but who refuse the opportunity.

Yet in many ways there has never been a time when so much intelligent work was being done for the poor in their homes as at present. Friendly Visitors connected with Charitable Societies, King's Daughters, Working Girls' Clubs, Boys' Clubs, and a host of others, are hard at work for good upon the individual poor, lending a hand to one after another, stimulating ambition, explaining failure, encouraging success. They are accomplishing much, but they work with their hands tied by the surroundings of those they seek to help. Their first desire is to induce their poorer friends to move into apartments where a home may be made, with domestic privacy, light, air, and cleanliness; and of such dwellings there is, alas, but small supply.

Now what can be done to increase the supply of healthy homes for the laboring classes in our large cities? There are three plain directions in which work for the improvement of tenement houses is possible, and in one or another of these ways almost every one can lend a hand. These are the erection of new and better dwellings, the improvement of existing houses, and legislative or municipal enactments. There is no conflict between these methods. One individual is adapted to work in one way, while another has the opportunity to help in another; all are immediately essential.

But can decent and healthy houses be furnished to the laboring classes in all our cities at rentals not greater than they already pay for improper and unhealthy apartments while returning to the owner a fair interest on the investment? This is a test question, for upon its favorable answer depends the legal justice of legislative restrictions aimed at prohibiting the erection of unsanitary or otherwise improperly constructed houses. It is therefore most fortunate that the answer may be made unhesitatingly, Yes.

The conditions which make this possible, even in the most crowded cities of our repub-

lic, are far different from the conditions which make it well-nigh impossible in London. In London, the day laborer and, in general, the class of men and women earning the smallest weekly wages cannot, even if regularly employed, be furnished in any new building with the necessary minimum of two rooms, with or without a scullery, for the rents they at present pay. This is a permanent barrier to the decent housing of the very poorest class in London, except by charitable aid, and even the Peabody Buildings are complained of, with some foundation, as not reaching really the poorest of the laboring classes on account of too high rents, though they are let considerably below fair market values.

This condition in London, and the well-known efforts of Miss Octavia Hill and others to amend it, have contributed doubtless to the spread of the idea that it is likewise impossible in this country to house the poorest classes in new and improved houses with a fair return on the investment. This view cannot be tolerated here. It is easily possible in all our cities to furnish two or more rooms with a scullery containing separate sink, water-closet, etc., in a new, well-aired, well-lighted, healthy edifice—a small home so far as any apartments may be styled a home—entirely in the control of the occupants and complete in itself, for from \$1.50 upward per week, and this sum is within the means of the poorest paid class of breadwinners, when employed regularly, or of a better paid class employed spasmodically.

The possibility of the provision of such homes has been sufficiently proven in New York, Boston, and elsewhere, but most conclusively in Brooklyn, where the earliest successful efforts, made on any considerable scale in this country, were initiated in 1876. In February of the Centennial year the first block of the "Home Buildings" was opened to forty families and filled in a week. Within two years thereafter the property of the Improved Dwellings Company was extended until it housed nearly eleven hundred people.

The same company has recently completed, also in Brooklyn, the "Riverside Buildings." In the plans of these buildings, all the advantages of construction which could be devised, while keeping rents within the reach of the poorest paid of the working classes, have been provided, and the introduction of the large interior park, with grass, trees, fountain, and playground, makes this block,

or square of blocks, unique on either side of the ocean. This park is 260 feet in length and 120 in average width. A paved driveway extends entirely around it, giving access to the cellars from the rear and allowing convenient removal of ashes and supply of coal. The central plot surrounded by the driveway is planted with trees and is neatly sodded, except the playground, the size of two full city lots, which is a raised knoll of brown sand, in which the children dig at pleasure and where swings provide amusement for them. On Saturdays fifty to a hundred children may be found on the playground, and when the band provides the weekly music Saturday afternoons, two or three hundred people often occupy the walks of the little park.

Seven of the nine staircases which give access to the apartments are sunk in the front of the buildings, while two are in the rear. The front staircase plan is the same followed in the earlier buildings of the company and was departed from only where the shape of the ground made it necessary. The Brooklyn Board of Health has published a description of the general plan of construction, from which the following extracts are made:

"The stairs are of slate and set in solid brick-work towers. In rising from story to story a half turn is made, and at the top of each flight a slate balcony, protected by an iron railing, is reached. These balconies are about thirty feet long. From each end of each balcony a hallway runs directly back; private halls, admitting to the rooms of each dwelling, lead from this hallway. Thus, every family has its dwelling entirely private and apart from, and with no room opening into, another's, while all have direct sunlight. The rooms are provided with closets with hooks and shelves, and the living-room with a dresser. The windows of all the rooms are of unusual size, and extend up close to the ceiling. From the living-room a door leads into the extension, a small room 7½ by 5 feet. This contains an ash-flue door, a sink, a stationary washtub, a window, and a water-closet with separate outside window. All of these conveniences are furnished to every family entirely apart from all others. The ash-flues, one foot square, and ventilated at top, discharge into large ash-rooms in rear of cellars, separated from the main cellars by a brick wall and accessible only by doors in the rear. No ashes or refuse are ever exposed on the sidewalk or elsewhere. All refuse is burned, and the ashes are loaded directly from ash-vaults into carts, which

pass out by a rear gateway. The water supply is ample. The water-closets are all provided with cisterns overhead to insure instant supply of water. The traps are ventilated, and siphoning is prevented by vent-pipes carried above the roof. The washtubs and sinks are trapped separately from the water-closets. Waste-pipes pass down against the back wall of the extension and out through the rear wall of the cellars into the sewer, avoiding any horizontal drains under the buildings. Every family has a large coal and wood bin in the cellar, numbered to correspond with its room.

"The buildings are all of good red brick, and all windows and outside doors are arched with brick. Floors are of the best yellow pine throughout. The flat gravel roof is used as a clothes-drying ground by the families in the upper three stories. For the occupants of the lower stories lines are provided in the yard. The slate staircase, extending from cellar to roof, is not only absolutely fireproof, but cannot be reached by any fire that may occur in the buildings, forming an unequaled fire escape."

It will be seen at a glance that these buildings embody in their plan of construction three radical innovations and improvements, *first*, fireproof staircases open to the air; *second*, each apartment with separate scullery complete in itself; *third*, buildings only two rooms deep so that every room has light and air.

This outside staircase plan was first used in 1863, in London, by Sir Sydney Waterton, and has found increasing favor there and elsewhere since. It does away at a stroke with the common interior hall, while the shallowness of the buildings renders air shafts unnecessary. There is thus a complete separation of each story from those above and below, and to pass from one to another it is necessary to step out on every floor into the open air. The tenants appreciate that the stairs form a model fire escape, while the Health Board recognize fully how the communication of disease is hindered by the removal of the common hall.

The average tenant takes good care of the fixtures in his scullery, though many a one has never before had responsible control of such conveniences. This proves a certain economy in the provision and maintenance of separate sink, tub, and water-closet for each tenant, for the responsibility being thus clearly placed teaches at once a constant care, while a use and responsibility divided

between two or more tempt to carelessness and neglect.

In the "Riverside" there are provided attractive and adequate hot and cold baths to accommodate all, and these are opened free of charge on certain hours each day to men and boys, and women and girls, and are largely patronized by the tenants.

The rentals in these buildings for a living-room, bedroom, and scullery range from \$1.50 per week on the top floors to \$2 on the floor one flight above the street. With the addition of a parlor, making four rooms in all, the weekly rental ranges from \$2 to \$2.80, according to floor, location, and size of rooms. The average demand is for sets of three rooms and a scullery and about sixty per cent of all the apartments are accordingly thus proportioned. About thirty per cent consist of one room less, and the remaining ten per cent have one or two rooms more. It is usually estimated, and with appropriate correctness, that a workingman spends one fifth to one fourth of his earnings for rent. The average rental of the four and three room sets being between two dollars and two dollars and a quarter per week, indicates *average* weekly earnings of the tenants through the year of nine to ten dollars. Many of the tenants earn more than this when at work, such as those in building trades, for instance, and the longshoremen, but their work is quite irregular. About one eighth of the tenants are either widows with children or single women, whose occupations are sewing, house cleaning, washing, etc., and whose earnings are much less. This shows conclusively that in this country these Improved Dwellings reach a much humbler class of tenants than they do in London, without the necessity of such charitable financial assistance as they must feel they incur in the Peabody Buildings for instance.

The mixture of nationalities in the Brooklyn buildings is most striking. There we find Germans and Irish, English, Scandinavians, etc., living in the same blocks of buildings and as many as a dozen nationalities represented in each annual census. Of American and Irish about equal numbers appear, while the Swedes and Norwegians together outnumber either of the former.

The financial results of these building enterprises have been entirely satisfactory to the owners, while the tenants, well convinced that they get all they pay for, are ready and

prompt in payment of their rents. The agent never goes out to collect these, but they are regularly brought to the office on the premises on each Saturday or Monday for the week following. So prompt are the tenants in payment that on Tuesday morning the total amount unpaid for the current week represents in the aggregate but a few hours' rent for the entire property. Yet still better and more satisfactory than the financial returns are the moral returns of such investments. If the owners should ask their tenants to recognize themselves in any way as the recipients of charitable assistance, which they are not, the whole situation would be changed and the results for ill would outweigh the effects for good. But because the whole management is on the basis of mutual fairness, with no obligation implied except the honest discharge of mutual duties as landlords and tenants, the stranger may

knock at any door and, simply asking the courtesy of a view of the little apartment, can learn from the occupants their cordial appreciation of, and satisfaction in, their surroundings. The aim here has been not to give accommodations for less than they were worth, but to give the best value possible in return for the rents usually paid, while securing such a return as other real estate investments usually yield.

Life in the best apartment house that can be constructed is not ideal, either for rich or for poor, but no other life is possible for millions of the working classes in this country to-day. Strange, indeed, it seems that, given so many thousands of people able and desirous to help those less favored than themselves, so few should use their energy and means in the most natural, most necessary, and most productive direction—the provision of better homes for the working classes.

THE PROBLEM OF COLOR HEARING.

BY ALFRED BINET.

Translated for "The Chautauquan" from the "Revue des Deux Mondes."

A QUESTION of much interest in these days is that of color hearing. It has been repeatedly discussed in the daily papers and literary and scientific reviews; it has been the subject of medical theses and of didactic treatises; it has figured in poetry, in romance, and even in the theater; it has given rise to several conventions, the last one of which has just closed at Geneva; physiologists have been pre-occupied with it and have made many experiments concerning it, in their laboratories.

But in spite of all the researches but little is yet known of the question and still less is understood. It seems always to have been studied from its outside; scrupulous care has been paid to the details of color and of sound which are blended in color hearing. But it has not yet been explained what color hearing is, nor has it been attempted to render the phenomenon intelligible by the testimony of those capable of manifesting it. It shall be the effort of this article in some measure to supply these deficiencies; though at the outset it must be stated that too little is yet discovered concerning it to allow any one to advance much more than a few theories regard-

ing it. The first step shall be to describe it as a mental condition.

Let us note carefully, in order to have a concerted view upon these questions, the circumstances under which certain persons have been made aware for the first time that they possessed the faculty of coloring sounds.

One day, by chance, in a conversation upon colors, one of the persons present, thinking to express a general sentiment, remarked in a matter-of-fact way that certain words had peculiar tints or shades. He was utterly unconscious that he had said anything unusual. I recall also a woman who, upon another occasion, while we were speaking of the blue color of a certain flower, made this remark, "It is as blue as the name Julius." And then seeing the astonishment of those around her, she added naively, "You all know very well that the word Julius is blue." Naturally, none of them had ever suspected such a thing.

Pedrono, a physician, has published a very interesting case of color hearing, that of a young professor of rhetoric. Some young persons had assembled and were chatting gaily. They repeated at random several

times the very insipid pleasantries, a comparison found in a romance, "beautiful as a yellow dog." Then this person remarking on the voice of one who had just uttered the expression, said in a serious tone, "His voice is not yellow, it is red." This affirmation called forth astonishment and a shout of laughter. They all bantered the person who had thus made known his peculiar impressions, and, beginning to sing, each one wished to know the color of his voice.

Those who learn for the first time of these peculiar perceptions in others experience a great surprise; they can form no idea of what it is; the likening of a sound to a color seems to them a process utterly devoid of any intelligible character. Meyerbeer has said somewhere that certain chords in music are purple. What meaning can be given to this expression? Each of the words taken separately has a signification: every one knows what is meant by a chord in music, and by the color purple; but the linking of these terms by a verb and making such a sentence as "This chord is purple," conveys no idea to the mind. As well say virtue is blue or vice is yellow.

So, for the great majority of people, color hearing is an enigma. I shall attempt to show that it is a real phenomenon. Simulation has generally an individual character. It is the work of one person and not of many; it does not give rise to uniform effects, which repeat themselves from one generation to another and in different countries. It is especially important in the examination of this subject to take into consideration the number of persons who affirm that they have the faculty of color hearing. According to Bleuler and Lehmann this number would amount to twelve out of every one hundred; Claparède, a distinguished psychologist of the University of Geneva, who was deeply engaged in an examination of this subject, has stated that out of four hundred and seven who responded to his questions, two hundred and five possessed color hearing. This very large proportion cannot be understood to be general, for the immense majority of individuals who know nothing at all of such phenomena do not respond to such questions, for several reasons, chiefly because of a certain disdain for studies which they cannot comprehend. It is nevertheless true that Mr. Claparède has collected without great effort two hundred and five observations and that

this number added to those obtained before, gives a total of nearly five hundred cases. Surely this is a mass of testimony which may inspire some confidence.

It is necessary to admit, then, as established, the fact that some persons do experience on hearing certain sounds, impressions of color whose nature varies with that of the sounds and of the individuality of the person.

The first author who signalized the colors produced by sounds was a physician of Bavaria, named Sachs. His publication is dated 1812; it formed his inaugural thesis in medicine. He describes his own impressions and those of his sister. His observations are very complete and contain in great part details such as are found in later works on the subject. He died young, at twenty-eight, and his researches fell into oblivion.

During the following years some physicians, especially oculists, such as Cornaz of Geneva, published isolated observations. In 1873 there appeared the important work of Nussbaumer, who wrote of himself and his brother, the one a student at Vienna, the other a watchmaker. Both experienced at an early age these color sensations when they heard certain sounds. In their boyhood, they were accustomed to fasten spoons and knives to strings and suspend them in such a way as to make them ring. They then designated by a color the sounds produced and described their impressions. Often they did not agree and the differences sometimes led into long disputes, of which their brothers and sisters comprehended absolutely nothing. The student published in later years, a detailed account of the two cases.

Six years later, in 1879, Bleuler and Lehmann wrote their work. It is the most complete of any on the subject. The two authors were studying medicine at the University of Zurich. Bleuler relates how the idea of the work came to his mind. There was a conversation on chemistry. Interrogated on the aspect of ketones, Bleuler replied, "Ketones are yellow because there is an *o* in the name." Thus by a curious illusion he attributed the color suggested by the name of an object to the object itself. His friend Lehmann, greatly astonished, and not understanding his response, demanded an explanation. What he heard in reply piqued his curiosity and they both began then to make experiments upon their friends. They published accounts of more than sixty cases.

In general, it has been learned from such researches that the impression of color is produced most generally by speech. The sounds and noises of nature cause the same effect only as they bear an analogy to the human voice. Speech gives the listener an impression of color only when it is clearly uttered: a murmur has not the same effect as the voice in singing or in distinct speaking. The tone of the voice influences the tints and shades; the barytone and the bass voice awaken sensations of dark colors, and shrill voices light colors. Closer examination reveals the fact that the color depends chiefly upon the separate words pronounced. Every word has its own color or rather colors. Carrying the analysis further still it is learned that the color of the words depends upon that of the letters composing it, and that it is, consequently, the alphabet which is colored. The final observation reached is that the consonants have only pale and obscure tints and that the coloration of language is derived directly from the vowels. With a very few exceptions, these discoveries hold true of all subjects examined.

It is curious to note that with some persons the apparition of colors occurs not only when they hear words pronounced or when they think, but even when they see them printed or written.

What, then, is this coloration of the vowels? It is here that the question becomes intricate. As to all descriptions of the observations recorded, they differ but little; as to detail in colors there have been recognized various shades and tints following no regular order. *A*, which appears red to one, is black to another, white to a third, yellow to a fourth, etc. As the number of colors and of letters is limited there will be found in a certain number of cases a few which will agree. Sometimes also agreement will be shown in the cases of members of the same family or of persons who live together. But it is evident that the rule is disagreement. This disagreement produces strange consequences. Two persons possessing the sense of color hearing can never understand each other; each one is shocked by the colors which the other indicates. Red, which for the one perfectly harmonizes with *a*, gives to the other the impression of a false note. Naturally each thinks he is right; a condition which often gives rise to curious examples of intolerance!

F-Jan.

Attempts have been made to find for the vowels the colors upon which there has been most agreement. Mr. Jules Millet gives as the result of his studies the following statement:

A black, *e* yellow, *i* white, *o* red, *u* green.

Mr. Claparède sums up his researches in this list:

A black, *e* blue, *i* red, *o* yellow, *u* green.

Agreement in the two summaries holds only in regard to *a* and *u*. But this is of little signification. The question which interests us, and which we are now going to examine is, in what sense there can exist an identity or even an analogy between a letter and a color.

First of all it is necessary to notice a pre-occupation which haunts the minds of the subjects of color hearing. They all have a strange illusion regarding their psychological state. Up to the moment when they are interrogated concerning their impressions, they suppose that the faculty of coloring sounds is a natural one, common to all, and it is not without inquietude that they learn the contrary. One is never pleased on discovering that he is an exceptional creature. Everything exceptional appears abnormal, and takes on the character of disease.

In order to get at any understanding of this subject it is necessary to have recourse to psychological analysis.

Some students have thought that the peculiar sensation resulted from some malady of the eyes or the ears; others have explained it as some trouble in perception, such as a double perception, or a confusion between the two acts of seeing and hearing. But all of these are in error. It is wholly in the imagination of the person that the trouble lies. It has long been a well-known fact in psychology that any intense mental experience, such as would form an indissoluble fusion of ideas, acts in a direct manner upon the belief and the conduct of individuals.

The impressions of color of which some persons are conscious in hearing certain vowels are not real sensations, they are not colors which can be seen; but are mental images, ideas. One does not know how better to compare them than to the images which the natural meaning of the words awakens in the normal mind. The mental state of persons having color hearing is characterized by the direction of the thought

toward color; and each word thus gives to the mind complex ideas. These ideas follow the word as a procession, constantly accompanying it. They are as a second meaning with which words are enriched. In place of provoking a single idea each word for them provokes two, the idea of the object of which the word is the name and the idea of color. When color hearers catch the sound of a simple sentence, such as "I am going to the country," they have a complex representation of such a trip and all that it includes, and besides they see passing before their eyes in imagination a succession of colors.

It is known to-day that every mental image which is at all impressive is accompanied for a brief instant with a belief in the reality of the object. This phenomenon, a little exaggerated, would become transformed into an hallucination. This comparison makes it easier to understand how the impressions of color which sound gives to certain persons can become to them visual hallucinations.

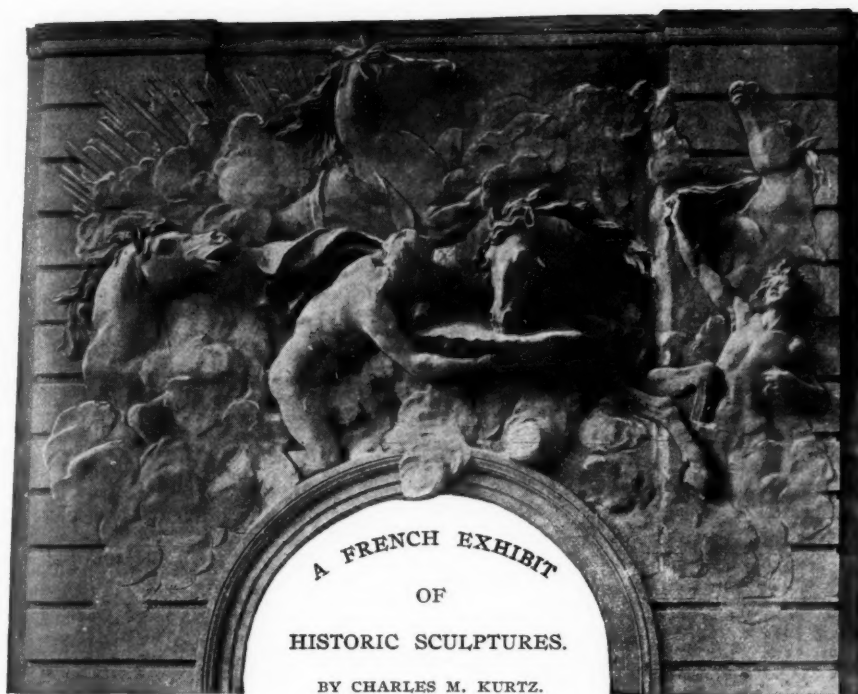
Having thus sought to establish the mental nature of these impressions, it remains for us to search into the cause of their apparition. Our ideas have in general a logical origin. If I hear a bell ring without seeing it, I imagine to myself its form, its motion, its size, etc. Everyone readily understands this grouping together of ideas; it is natural, being derived from previous experiences. But how it is that the letter *a* awakens the idea of red, and that in a general way all sounds are colored for some persons, is beyond the ordinary comprehension. Such associations are fictitious, and of a purely individual character; they do not correspond to anything in the regular order of exterior facts. It seems to me that the explanation lies in the hypothesis that color hearers belong to the category of visualists—those who have the power of making that which is seen by the mind only, visible to the eye.

Dr. Pedrono says of one of his subjects, "Every time that a distinct sound strikes his ear, especially the sound of the human voice, it at the same instant produces in him the impression of color. This impression is sudden and spontaneous. Before remarking whether a voice is agreeable or not, whether it is strong or weak, he says, 'A red voice, a green voice,' etc. This spontaneity of im-

pression shows that it is not voluntarily sought for. Further, the association between the sound and color dates in all cases back to infancy; its origin is lost in the haziness surrounding the first years of life; also whatever color is connected with a sound at the beginning remains always attached to it. It is beyond the power of color hearers voluntarily to destroy these associations or to replace them by others. From the very first moment when *a* appears red to one of them, it will remain red in spite of any effort he may make to change it. It is an indissoluble association, a fixed idea.

If the origin of this phenomenon lies, as we believe it does, in the organization of the individual, what are the occasional causes which determine it? We frankly admit that as yet but little is definitely known concerning this inquiry, but if we thought it impossible ever to solve the question we should not have proposed it. More and more is slowly being discovered in regard to it, and we have a firm hope that well-conducted individual inquiries will finally end in the discovery of the origin of this color-sound association in each case. Perhaps it will be found that it arises from the first picture book with colored letters given to the child to amuse it, and the color becomes forever after inseparable from the letter. Perhaps also the sound of certain words which are the names of colors are detached by a sort of abstraction and carry the reflection of the color into the other words in which the same sound enters. As a proof of this Mr. Galton publishes an observation concerning a certain Englishwoman to whom the letter *e* appeared red. She supposed it arose from the fact that *e* was in the word red, and that the letter always suggested to her the color.

Summing up the results obtained from the researches made thus far in this peculiar question, we have the following statements, but they show that a good beginning, promising greater results soon, has been made: One point is certain—that the impressions of color which are suggested by certain acoustic sensations are mental images; one point is probable—that persons who experience these phenomena belong to the visual type of persons; one point is possible—that the grouping of the impressions may be the result of associated perceptions gained in early life.



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THE material portion of the World's Columbian Exposition chiefly is known, thus far, through the numerous disquisitions that have been published concerning the architecture and decoration of its various buildings. It has been pointed out that these Exposition structures, as a class, must exercise a potent and much-needed influence in the direction of architectural reform in this country, illustrating, as do most of them, the strength and beauty of simplicity, judicious reserve in the employment of decorative detail, and the wisdom of giving due consideration to situation and environment. The decorative treatment of most of the structures is full of suggestion to architects, sculptors, and painters, and the principles therein practically set forth undoubtedly will be involved and recognized in many of our buildings in the future.

But architectural and sculptural lessons will not alone be taught by the Exposition buildings. In the great courts of the Central

Pavilion of the Art Palace will be installed a magnificent collection of casts duplicating reproductions of monumental works shown in the Museum of Comparative Sculpture, in the Palace of the Trocadero, in Paris. These casts not only illustrate the growth of French sculpture, but also the development of architecture as a fine art in France during medieval and later times. They embrace superb examples of late Romanesque; the Gothic, from its beginning to the period of its highest development; the Renaissance and reproductions of some more modern work. The exhibit is not designed to exemplify the technical characteristics of the different systems of building,* but to show noteworthy examples of construction possessing in itself great decorative value enhanced by the proper use of sculpture.

* The technical (mechanical) principles of architecture of different countries and periods will be illustrated by drawings and models in the Exposition's Department of Liberal Arts.

Medieval art is less generally understood—especially in America—than the art of any other period in the range of our present comprehension. Except in the construction of certain of our churches, Gothic architecture has found little employment in this country, and that little exhibits slight diversity in

The French Museum of Comparative Sculpture is one of the most valuable adjuncts of art study in France. It is a natural outgrowth of the work of the National Commission on Historic Monuments, organized in 1832, "for the conservation of all property which, by nature or design, has a historical



Portion of facade of Church of St. Gilles. 12th century.

type or character, is not important in its class, and has developed no modification suggesting special adaptation to American conditions. In this, as in other matters, we have copied literally, rarely or never striving to interpret the spirit and apply its teachings.

While, in our principal museums, we have had, for many years, casts of the sculptural details of Greek and Roman structures, and while the decorative features of the classic orders have become familiar to almost everyone, heretofore only occasional small, fragmentary objects have represented the country and the period in which the Gothic and the Renaissance attained their highest expression. Considering the readiness of Americans to adopt that which commends itself to them, it is of the greatest importance that they have set before them as many examples as can be obtained of that which is good or which offers worthy suggestion, and, therefore, the value of such casts as those of the Trocadero collection scarcely can be overestimated.

or artistic interest to the state." This commission, in the course of its labors, conceived the wise idea of having casts prepared, partly for the sake of bringing together in one place reproductions of characteristic portions of these works, so that they might be studied and compared the more readily by a large number of persons, and partly in order to record the condition of various monumental works as they are at present—works sure to suffer more or less the processes of further decay as time goes on, or others soon destined to undergo restorations necessary for their preservation.

The Museum of Comparative Sculpture was established by a decree of the French government promulgated November 4, 1879, upon a plan originally outlined by the late Viollet-Leduc, but mainly carried out in accordance with designs carefully matured by M. Antonin Proust, at that time, as at present, president of the Commission on Historic Monuments. M. Proust's interest in the

museum has been most active, and its present importance and value may be credited mainly to his intelligent and unremitting efforts.*

The collection of casts to be shown in Chicago comprises duplicates of many of the most important reproductions in the Trocadero Museum. There are great portions of the façades of cathedrals and churches, enormous portals, elaborate altars, galleries, columns, capitals, statues, tombs, and the almost innumerable details of the splendid and unique ornamentation of some of the most noteworthy structures of their class in the world.

These casts all have been made from molds formed directly from the original monuments; the material composing the molds having been forced into the smallest interstices of the stone, terra-cotta, wood, or other material of the object to be copied, so as to reproduce in perfect detail all its textural qualities and slightest markings. Each cast made from the mold then has been placed beside the original work and colored so exactly like the latter that often it is difficult to realize that certain apparently ancient fragments, seemingly weather-worn and time-stained, are nothing more than mere plaster reproductions.

Some of the casts are of very considerable size,—for instance, that one showing a portion of the façade of the Church of St. Gilles is 41 feet long and 24 feet high; the tympanum from the Portal of the Virgin, from Notre-Dame, Paris, is 24 feet high and over 18 feet wide; the portal of the Cathedral of Bordeaux is over 35 feet high and almost as wide; the Gallery [Jubé] of Limoges Cathedral is 20 feet high and 36 feet long, and some other reproductions are very large.

The collection as a whole reproduces especially characteristic and interesting portions of the Cathedrals of Chartres and Bourges (12th century); Paris, Rheims, Amiens, Lyons, Rouen, and Laon (13th century); Bordeaux, Nantes, and Sens

*In 1881, M. Proust was minister of arts in the Gambetta Cabinet. In 1891, when France accepted the invitation of the United States to participate in the Columbian Exposition, M. Proust was appointed commissioner of fine arts for France at the Exposition. As commissioner, his work has been most valuable, both to his country and to the Exposition.



Figures from Chartres Cathedral. 12th century.



Sculptures from Amiens Cathedral. 13th century, first half.

(14th century); Mans (15th century); Beauvais, Limoges, and Tours (16th century); the Churches of St. Gilles, St. Trophime at Arles, St. Martin at Brive, St. Euthrope at Saintes, and Notre-Dame du Port at Clermont-Ferrand (12th century); St. Denis and St. Croix at Nievre (13th century); St. Maclou at Rouen (16th century); St. Nicholas and St. Jean at Troyes (16th century); the cloisters of Moissac (12th century); the Abbey de la Dourade at Toulouse (12th century); the chapel of St. Germer (13th century); the Chateaux of Lude (15th century) and Gaillon (16th cen-

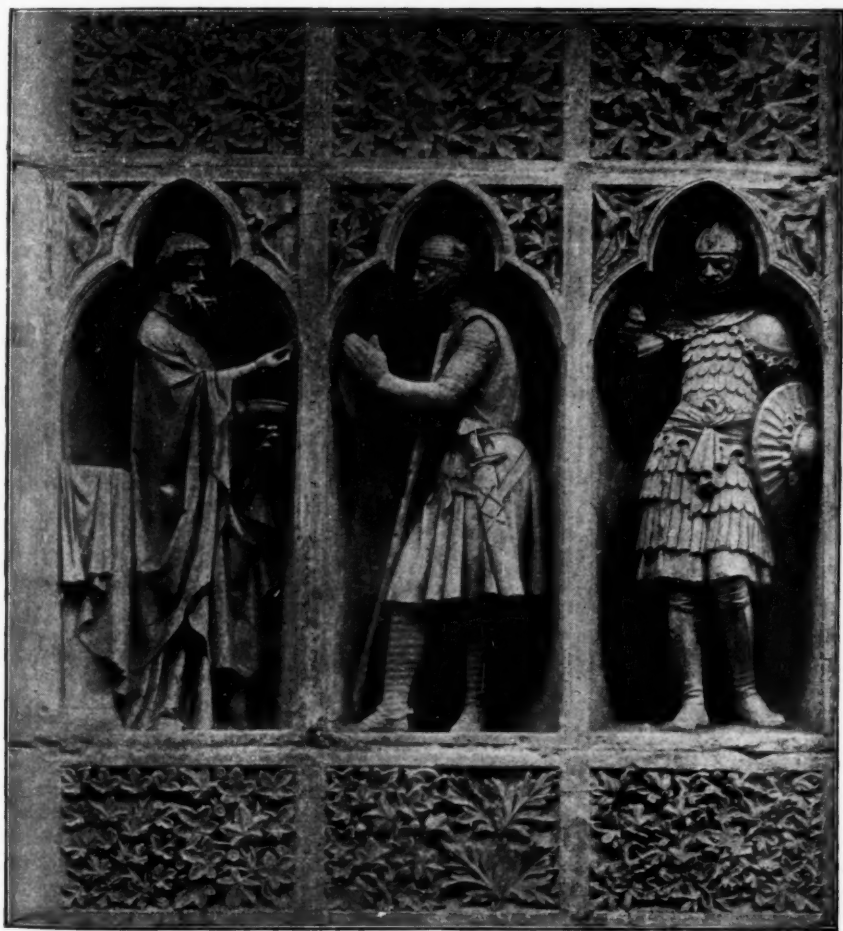
ture); the Hotel de Rohan, Paris, the Palace of Versailles, the Hotel de Ville of Toulon (17th century), and many examples of special sculptures not particularly associated with architectural decoration.

In an article of limited extent it is manifest that these casts cannot be described with specific detail; the illustrations presented herewith offer a suggestion, however, of the general interest of the collection—an interest it will have not only for the artist but for the general visitor. In it may be studied and compared not only the various masterpieces

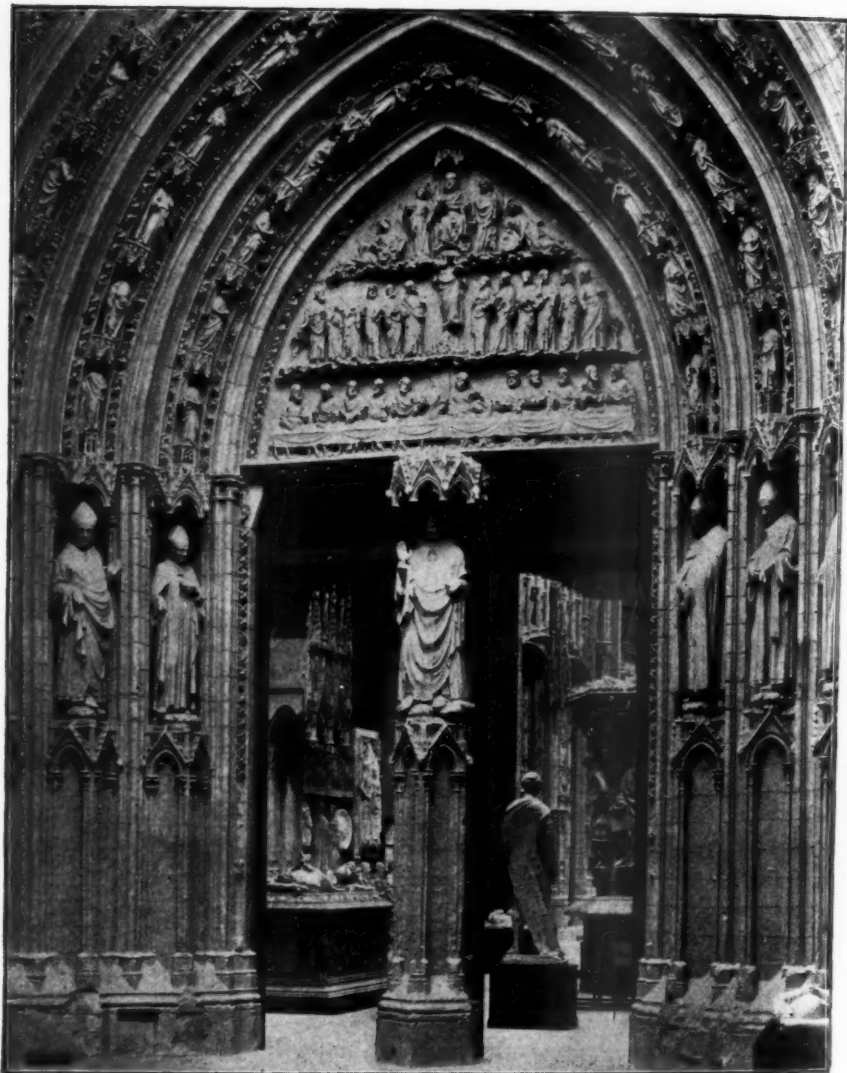
of the Gothic and the Renaissance in France, but the art principles of which they are the expression. Here one may follow, also, the development of special phases of decorative design as influenced by geographic location, peculiar environment, government, inherited or acquired customs, beliefs, etc., and may gain new and valuable ideas concerning their period and the people who produced them. Already, in France, recent study of these monuments has led to the recovery to history of much that long had been viewed only as uncertain tradition, and has resulted in the discovery of long-forgotten names of early architects and sculptors and the correction of

many long-accepted facts and dates. But this is the smaller value of the collection; its greater value lies in its presentation of that which may add to the art knowledge of the layman and offer inspiration and suggestion to the artist.

In the remarkable monuments of the medieval period—most of which convey the idea that the sculptors worked with sincere devotion to their art as well as to the truths which they strove to explicate through it—one is impressed by the harmony that almost invariably appears to have existed between the architect and the sculptor. There is no suggestion of a structure entirely planned by



Decoration of interior wall of Rheims Cathedral. 13th century, second half.



Portal of the Cathedral of Bordeaux (transept), 14th century.

a builder utterly ignorant of art, and then turned over to a strange contractor for "decoration" at so much the square foot,—as is the usual practice in these modern times. In medieval days the architects and sculptors seem to have planned together and to have worked together, each putting into his effort all that he could offer in the direction of glorifying the work, and cheerfully making concessions and sacrifices when the highest ar-

tistic interests of the joint production appeared to demand them.

Of the numerous reproductions of the Romanesque, certainly the most noteworthy example in the collection is the portion of the façade of the Church of St. Gilles (of the Department of Gard, Provence, Southern France), showing the magnificent central portal of the west front. This fragment, dating from the early portion of the 12th cen-

ture, exhibits the most charming relationship in its architecture and sculpture. Here construction and decoration went hand in hand, assisting each other to the utmost. While there is great wealth of sculptural detail—excellent in composition and fine in execution—there is no weakening excess of it; the work as a whole is pervaded by a simple dignity that is very satisfying. The decoration of this church almost marks the birth of art interest in France. The sculptures of the preceding centuries rarely could be commended;—when not absolutely crude and barbarous in detail, they usually were weakly imitative of ancient models, and seldom were employed judiciously in connection with architecture.

A little later than St. Gilles came the neighboring church of St. Trophime at Arles (eleven miles distant from St. Gilles, and dating from the middle of the 12th century), and these two structures have been characterized "the finest examples of the Romanesque in France—even unparalleled, in their time, in Italy." (Reber.) St. Gilles often has been referred to as the culmination of the excellence of the Byzantine style.

From the movement which had its beginning in Provence, inspired, perhaps, in some degree, by the remains of many ancient Roman works scattered through the territory (as at Arles, Nîmes, Orange, Pont du Gard, and other points), art feeling spread throughout France and beyond, and architecture and decoration assumed radically new phases, as invention was stimulated by devotion and the spirit of competition, guided by a recognition of the climatic conditions and the character and needs of the people of each particular region.

As the art impulse extended northward, sculptural decoration improved, and statues and bas-reliefs representing the human figure began to lose the stiffness of the Byzantine type and assume a more natural, lifelike appearance. This improvement is shown in its early stage in some of the 12th century sculptures of the Cathedral of Chartres,—though even in these there is retained much of the conventional rigidity and meagerness that characterized the earlier religious sculptures. Two figures from one of the *piédroits* of the central portal of the Cathedral of Chartres illustrate this.

The great advance in medieval art was particularly marked in structures of the

13th century, whence the examples are so numerous, so varied, and of such fascinating interest as to be almost overwhelming to the student. Ferguson enthusiastically declares that this period as a building epoch "is perhaps the most brilliant in history, surpassing even the great Pharaonic age in Egypt, the age of Pericles in Greece, and the great days of the Roman Empire, in the extent of the buildings executed, their wonderful variety and constructive elegance, the daring imagination that conceived them, and in the power of the poetry and the lofty religious feeling expressed in every feature and in every part of them."

In the façades of the Cathedrals of Laon and Paris (Notre-Dame) the figures, while somewhat constrained, are no longer rigid. There is in them a suggestion of having been studied from life, "though from types chaste, self-contained, and inclining to severity in expression." In the sculptures of the Cathedral of Amiens (dating from about 1230), there is greater freedom of action and truth to nature; as one may see from the pier and doorway of St. Honoré. Here the figures are well drawn, and the faces have in them a suggestion of "interest in life" (by no means a frivolous interest, however), entirely lacking in most of the earlier work. The draperies are carefully studied, yet are not obtrusive in technique. It may be mentioned that the figure of the Virgin, in this fragment, dates from the latter half of the 14th century. It occupies a position originally intended for a statue of St. Honoré. It very fairly illustrates the beginning of the decadence, when the sculptor became more interested in himself and in his technical facility than in his subject, and when devotion degenerated into affectation.

A single figure of great strength and dignity—one almost might write "of great solemnity"—is the famous "Christ of Amiens," which stands in front of the pier of the central portal of the west front of the cathedral. In this work one cannot fail to be impressed by the evident sincerity of the sculptor. This statue undoubtedly was the expression of an ideal that was a part of his life. In nearly all the sculptures of Amiens one finds noble simplicity, dignity, grace, and beauty. If sometimes they lack absolute truth to nature, they usually possess the greater quality of faithfulness to the sublime ideals of which they are the expression.

The sculptures of the Cathedral of Rheims represent, perhaps, the highest technical advancement of the medieval sculptor; but in them one misses something of the devotional fervor that is characteristic of the works a little preceding. Here we seem to find the artist more closely wedded to the material than to the ideal, to the language than to the sentiment to be conveyed by it. There is exquisite tenderness and delicacy in some of the figures from Rheims, but the great refinement in them often is realized at the expense of strength and seriousness, and prefigures the decadence which supervened in the 14th and 15th centuries. There is almost too great a reaction from former conventionality; the apostles, virgins, and saints appear too much like men and women of the world. But while generally inclined to lack the religious suggestiveness which their position demands, the sculptures of Rheims are very beautiful to contemplate. An example of the decorative treatment of the interior wall of the west portal of the cathedral shows several carefully drawn figures and an arrangement of decorative detail executed with great ability and disposed in a most charmingly artistic manner.

Limitations of space make it necessary to pass many interesting memorials of Bourges, Beauvais, and Rouen, and to devote only a momentary glance to the sculptural art of the 14th century—exemplified very fairly in the Cathedral of Bordeaux. The portal of this structure is a mass of elaborate sculpture of minute and very rich detail, exhibiting many of the most unsatisfactory features of its period. There is an overloading of ornament, and a general degeneration from sublimity to "prettiness." We see no longer the devoted and enthusiastic ascetics of the previous century, whose every lineament expressed strength of character and purpose; instead, we have a company of sleek, well-fed, complacent-looking bishops, serene in their sanctity, contemplating that which passes without emotion or even interest. The figure of Bertrand de Goth (afterwards Pope Clement V., the submissive tool of Philip IV.), stands before the central pier, under a dais, above which, in the tympanum, are representations of the Last Supper, the Ascension—treated in a very peculiar fashion—and Christ enthroned between four angels. In the *voussoirs*, the first archivolt is adorned with ten angels; the second with

the Twelve Apostles, and the third with fourteen patriarchs and prophets.

The 15th century has little to represent it, and this little shows the continuation of the decadence begun in the 14th century.

In the 16th century, in the reign of Francis I., the new era—the Renaissance—opens. In the Trocadero collection of casts this period is represented by many splendid examples. One of the most noteworthy is the gallery of the Cathedral of Limoges, which is a work of much magnificent detail executed with the most careful finish. A detailed description of this single work would require a special paper by itself.

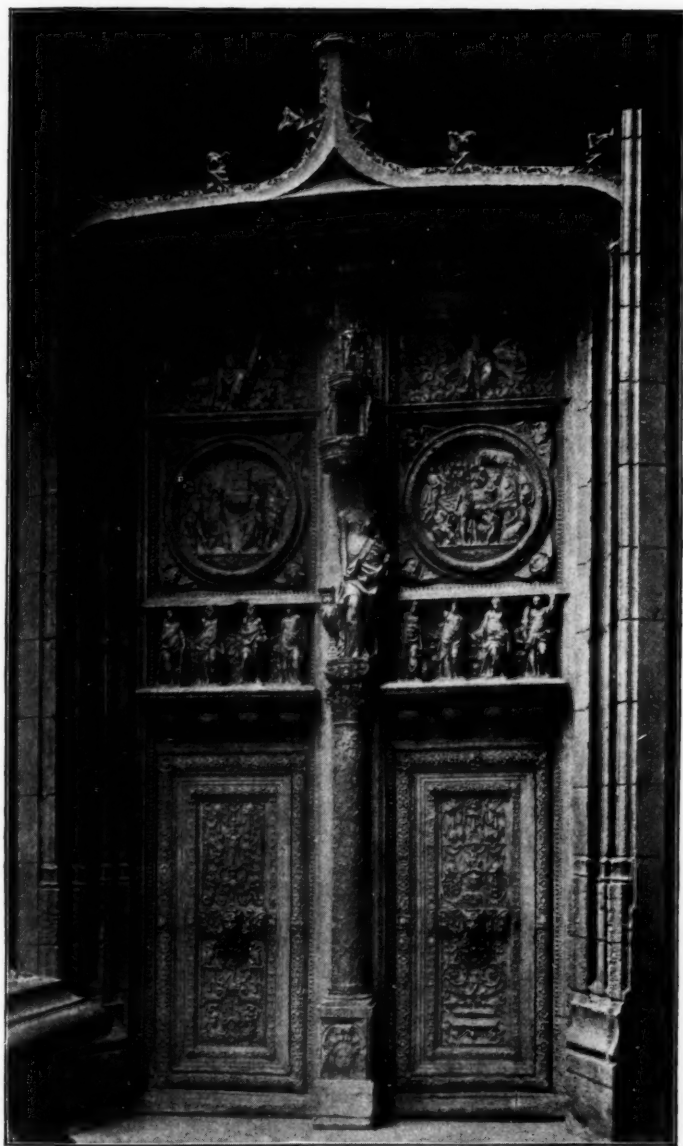
Another important 16th century production is the tomb of Louis de Brézé, Grand Seneschal of Normandy. This memorial was erected by his widow, the celebrated Diane de Poitiers, in Rouen Cathedral in 1535. It is attributed to Jean Cousin and to Jean Goujon and is a work of the most excellent artistic character.

The doorways and doors of the Church of St. Maclou, of Rouen, are among the especially beautiful productions of the 16th century and exhibit, in a remarkable manner, the high degree of perfection reached in decorative sculpture and wood-carving. Here, again, description fails one, and illustrations must be depended upon faintly to suggest the splendor of the original works.

Representing the 17th century, one of the most admirable of the casts reproduces the high relief crowning the entrance of the old Hotel de Rohan, Paris (the present Impri-merie Nationale), a master-work by Robert le Lorraine (1666-1743). (For illustration see headpiece of this article.) It suggests the vigor and movement characteristic of some of the best French sculpture of to-day.

There are many examples of the work of the 17th century, including a large number of sculptures from the Chateau of Versailles. Many of the latter are more "effective" than meritorious, but they have decided value in such a collection.

It is gratifying to know that, after the Exposition has closed, these casts still will remain in America. Of the entire collection, principal pieces to the value of more than fifty thousand francs generously have been presented by the French Government to the Exposition, with the understanding that, at its close, they are to become the property of an American Art Museum. During the Exposition, they will constitute the principal fea-



Door of north transept, Church of St. Maclou, Rouen. 16th century.

ture of the French Section of Architecture, in the Department of Fine Arts.

If our architects, sculptors, and decorators only will study these casts, and particularly in the light of their respective periods, striving to understand their spirit and then aiming to translate into art expression appro-

priate to our country and period the knowledge gained from them, the Trocadero casts may perform almost as great a service for this country as the original works from which they were taken have performed in the development of artistic taste in France.

For this exhibit of casts the Exposition is

especially indebted to the zeal and energy of Professor Halsey C. Ives, Chief of the Department of Fine Arts, who, as director of the St. Louis Museum of Fine Arts, had devoted much time to the study of the various European museums and particularly had been attracted by the Museum of Comparative Sculpture, in the Trocadero, in Paris. When Professor Ives visited Paris, a year ago, in the interest of the Art Department of the Exposition, he suggested to M. Proust, then lately appointed French commissioner of fine arts for the Exposition, the desirability of sending as an exhibit a collection of casts of the most im-

portant monuments for which France is famous.

M. Proust who has made the Trocadero Museum one of the great objects of his life, received the suggestion with great favor, and presented the project to his government in such an effective manner that not only was the exhibit determined upon, but it was resolved that reproductions of a number of the most important works should be presented to the Exposition, as the nucleus of a collection for a permanent museum, and as a memorial of the interest of France in the art development of her sister republic.



Limoges Cathedral (gallery). 16th century.

OLD, TRIED, AND TRUE.

BY EDGAR L. WAKEMAN.

A SONG I sing to all that's old—
Old, tried, and true! Ah, I would fain
The bitter with the sweetest hold,
Could all old hands clasp mine again.
The face of Change I meet with fear;
Though good the New, the Old is dear.

A song I sing to olden cheer:
For frosts of autumn gild the leaf;
They crown the seasons; test the year;
They mist the grape and bind the sheaf;
Their tender touch is longest lent
To earth and air and firmament.

A song I sing to olden ways:
Old scenes, old homes, old ingle-nooks;
Old faiths of blessed olden days;
Old myths, old rhymes, and dear old books;
And, if with faults, old friends; and calm
Loves flowing like some stately psalm.

O Angel dread of Untried Lands,
Move slow the pendulum of Change!
Hold kindly with thy faithful hands
Its longest reach in youthward range;
For sweet as is the new hour's cheer,
The olden hours are dear, more dear.

A DESOLATE MORNING.

BY FRANK WALCOTT HUTT.

THERE are few natural calms that are akin
To the chill quiet of a winter morn
In rural by-ways, leafless, white, and lorn:
For Pan hath fled, whose early wont hath been
The dawn with minstrelsy to usher in;
Ay, fled away, and all his pipes, forsworn,
Neglected lie, of ev'ry sweetness shorn,
Mute vassals of a cold, stern discipline.

Ah! it is vain to strain thine ear, to listen
For plash or trill: 'tis still, all very still,
And later storms have here and yonder raised
Above the dead, high spotless mounds, that glisten,
But render back no echo of the rill,
And tell no story of the bird that praised.

Woman's Council Table.



Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin.

KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN'S KINDERGARTEN.

BY FANNIE C. W. BARBOUR.

OF all the pleasant and profitable excursions which are offered to the sightseer in San Francisco, none is more enjoyable than a visit to the Silver Street Kindergarten. Here in a densely inhabited, but unfashionable quarter of the city, one can find a group of cultured young women faithfully carrying on, day by day, a most noble work. This same work, one woman, great in her generation, patiently and systematically planned and labored for, until success crowned her persevering efforts; while another woman, grand in her philanthropy, most generously furnished the means to carry it on.

Fourteen years ago Kate Douglas Smith, then a resident of Santa Barbara, California, whom we all know so well at the present time as Kate Douglas Wiggin, conceived the project of this free kindergarten school for

the little ones of the poor of San Francisco. She realized the value of those well-formulated and far-seeing projects of the great German instructor, Froebel, who, living a century ago, yet saw the need of making more attractive to the juvenile and untried minds of little children, the studies which should fit them for higher education in after years. We are all so familiar with the history and progressive development of the plans of this famous instructor, that no detailed account of his method will be necessary. But a moment's glance at the history of the gradual establishment of the kindergarten system in our own country may prove of interest.

To go back to its origin, the Italian Pestalozzi was the first teacher of modern times to organize a system of infant instruction, and his plans were perfected during the present century by later eminent writers. But on

Woman's Council Table.

KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN'S KINDERGARTEN.

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the 21st of April, 1782, in a small village of the Thuringian Forest, was born the man from whose brain was to emanate the most perfectly organized method of training and cultivating the juvenile mind, viz.: Friedrich Froebel. His new system obviated and eliminated all the difficulties and evils of Pestalozzi's method, and he christened it the Kindergarten or "Children's Garden." During Froebel's lifetime (he died in 1852), more than fifty kindergartens were established in Germany, Belgium, and Saxony.

If our public instructors had been a little more enterprising, America might have gained for herself the glory of originating the best method of teaching the little ones, for before the eminent German instructor had been heard from the Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, principal of the American Asylum for Deaf-Mutes at Hartford, proposed something on these same lines, but his plans were not carried out.

The French were the first outside nation to

adopt the kindergarten system, which they did in 1858. In the meantime the first publication on the subject was seen in America in 1856, when an article appeared in the *American Journal of Education*, and next some letters by Mr. John Kraus in the *Army and Navy Gazette*, and Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody's letters were published in the *New York Herald* of 1867-1868. Then came out the "Plea for Froebel's Kindergarten as the Primary Art School,"

appended to the "Artisan and Artist Identified," an American republication of Cardinal Wiseman's lectures.

In 1868 Miss Peabody established the kindergarten in Boston, and a training class was opened the same year at 52 Chestnut Street

in that city by Madame Kriege and her daughter, who had studied it in Germany. In 1871 Milton Bradley, a toy manufacturer of Springfield, Mass., an enterprising young man, first undertook the manufacture of Froebel's implements, and published a pamphlet to explain their use. In 1872 a free training school was established in St. Louis, and the same year it was introduced into England. In October the Normal Seminary for the Training of Kindergartners was opened at No. 7 East 22d Street, New York, conducted by Prof. John Kraus and Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte. A year after this Miss Peabody began to edit the *Kindergarten Messenger*.

The woman formerly alluded to, who by her philanthropic assistance made possible in 1878 the realization of Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin's project, was Miss Hattie Crocker, now Mrs. Alexander of San Francisco. She has been for some years the financial mainstay of the undertaking, and is known to the

children as "the fairy godmother," who, when they need any comfort, or if they even ask for luxuries, comes forward just at the right moment and supplies the lack. This was the first free kindergarten school established west of the Rocky Mountains, and from this institution during its brief existence of fourteen years, no less than sixty offshoots, entirely independent, however, and having no connection with the original, have sprung into existence along



Miss Nora A. Smith.

the Pacific coast. In San Francisco alone there are now forty-two free kindergartens, with a daily attendance of more than three thousand little ones.

Noted among them is the Golden Gate Kindergarten, also in a flourishing condi-

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KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN'S KINDERGARTEN.

tion, with several branches, which are almost entirely supported by Mrs. Leland Stanford, who gives thousands yearly to this work, one of her pet charities. During the last season Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper has started a training school for teachers under the Golden Gate Association, but from 1880 up to that time, the Silver Street Kindergarten was the only school (in the far west) for training the teachers of its methods, and this branch is at present under the personal tuition of Miss Nora Smith. The class now numbers twenty-nine, who, when they finish the course, are fitted for private work, as well as to teach in public schools or in any institution.

The building in Silver Street, a frame structure of fair dimensions, is given rent free by Mrs. Alexander, and here Miss Nora Smith, a younger sister of Mrs. Wiggin, ably fills the position of principal, aided by a score of valuable assistant teachers. Let us look in upon the children at their work. But no! that word is unknown here to these little tots. This is no work for them, but only play. Here, gathered in from squalid and comfortless homes, they are taught gentleness, kindness, and cleanliness by the most delightful of systems, while they play games and sing to their hearts' content; never realizing that through these very games and songs their little souls are uplifted into nobler heights, and their untaught minds are trained to receive and retain those higher grades of instruction which will come to them in later years. There are two hundred and ten children connected with the school at the present time, whose ages range from three to seven; about twenty of the number are from the Foundling Home.

There are four principal departments in the building: First, the Sutro room, fitted up by Mr. Adolph Sutro, a well-known and noble-hearted philanthropist of San Francisco. It is finished in pale green, and is used most often as a playroom. Here everything is arranged to lead the minds of the children to thoughts about the springtime, emblematic of the happy days of infancy and youth when life seems gay, joyous, and free from care. Pictures of birds and wild flowers are on the wall. Here they join in the game of the butterflies and sing the song of the birds and bees. At the end of the apartment is a large sand-table, around which all the little ones can stand and play garden, raking the soil, planting seeds, and building gates with

blocks. They also build the Cliff Rocks and lay out the Golden Gate Park in the most approved manner. Here they compile spring books, pricking out patterns and coloring the same with crayons, copying their designs from natural violets and live butterflies. On the side wall hangs a framed portrait of the great master Froebel.

Number 2 is the Eaton room, named for General Eaton, formerly commissioner of education, and ever a warm friend of the institution. On the wall of this apartment, opposite the entrance, hangs a lifelike portrait of its founder, and under it are these words:

"Kate Douglas Wiggin. In this room was born the first free kindergarten west of the Rocky Mountains. Let me have the happiness of looking down upon many successive groups of children sitting in the same seats."

This room is loved the best. The "Story of Patsy" was written here. It is a cheerful spot with dainty surroundings. Finished in brown with a dado of lighter shade and frieze of daffodils, all the pictures framed in brown and decorated with wheat, it is calculated to impress upon the children's minds the idea of summertime. By the window in a cage chirps a bird who bears the historical name of Patsy. The bird was donated by one of the kindergarten graduates. The principal of the Sutro and Eaton rooms is Miss Grace Pierce of San Francisco, who is Miss Nora Smith's assistant, and is well loved by all the little ones whom she so faithfully and patiently instructs day after day.

Apartment Number 3 is the Peabody room, christened for that first friend of the kindergartners in America, whose peaceful face crowned with snow-white locks will no more be seen among her young friends. Now that she is gone her sons carry on their mother's noble work, and take the same interest in it. This room is under the charge of Miss Light, who trains the children to weave and to model in clay. Here they are told all about the sky; they make comets and stars, and cut telescopes out of paper, and paint the Lick Observatory. They are also taught about the March winds and April showers and to make paper kites and umbrellas. Sewing is another branch taught to the older girls.

Room Number 4 is the Crocker room, fitted up in August, 1889, by Mrs. Alexander, particularly for the use of the Training School.

This is Miss Nora Smith's department, and most of her work is done here, although she superintends the whole institution. It is the largest room, its walls finished in terra-cotta with a wainscot of dark red, and a border of domestic animals, donkeys, pigeons, calves, lambs, colts, rabbits, and ducks. Here the children plow, harrow, and sow the land, mow grass, rake hay, dig potatoes, and carry the grain to mill, while later in the season they prepare for the Thanksgiving feast.

Another very interesting department in the building is a boys' library on the ground floor, which has been open only since last March. Mr. W. E. Brown, the secretary of the institution, well known as one of the leaders in all the philanthropic movements of San Francisco, published a charming original poem entitled "Jack and Jill," with the following dedication:

"To Kate Douglas Wiggin, the pioneer in free kindergarten work on the Pacific coast, this volume is inscribed as a slight token of regard for her unquestioned genius as an instructor, and her charming aptitude as an author. The free kindergarten class, gathered through her efforts, on Silver Street, San Francisco, Sept. 1, 1878, was the first school of its kind established west of the Rocky Mountains. This modest undertaking enlivened at first by the chatter of less than twenty little ones, was the initial attempt that has culminated in that meritorious group of kindergartens on this coast, that now counts its teachers by hundreds, and its pupils by thousands."

In December, 1891, Mr. Brown donated one dollar for every copy that had been sold of his poem, and the handsome sum of \$600 went to the fitting up of the boys' library. From two to six o'clock, any public-school

boy, or indeed any poor boy may come in to read, or may take a book to his home. A piano has been placed in the room, and the young ladies of the training school come down to play and sing for the boys.

One more interesting fact in connection with the work in the main rooms is that every Thursday, from two to five o'clock, there are kitchen garden classes for girls from the public schools, whose ages range from eight to thirteen years. This, with one exception, is the only kitchen garden in San Francisco. Here they learn to set the table, sweep a room, and in fact to do all kinds of housework, to music and song, in that altogether fascinating and yet instructive course of teaching which we all know so well here through its originator, Miss Emily Huntington of New York City.

And so the good work goes on. Men of great minds regard the kindergarten as one of the things needed to stop the great increase in pauperism and crime. By introducing this method into the public schools the children of the densely crowded tenement districts of our large cities will be at least taught cleanliness, and many benefits will accrue to themselves and their families, if they learn nothing but this one virtue, which is akin to godliness. The old idea of neglecting the education of children until their eighth year, when habits are already acquired and evil lessons ineffaceably learned from idleness, is entirely exploded. All honor is due to the woman who so many years ago carried these good rules across the continent, and bore messages of love and tidings of cheer to the untaught little ones of the far west, Kate Douglas Wiggin, the free kindergarten pioneer.

THE WORSHIP OF "THINGS."

BY OLIVE THORNE MILLER.

"**T**HINGS are in the saddle
And ride mankind,"
says Emerson, and one cannot avoid a suspicion, that with all his absorption in high philosophy, he had in his mind when he wrote, some of our American "good housekeepers."

The worship of "things" is a passion that carries all before it. Not the fashion devotee G-Jan,

to her gowns, the bookworm to his folios, not the collector to his postage stamps or his pictures, is so absolutely a slave to his idol as the woman who worships her "things" and is called for politeness' sake, a "thorough housekeeper."

We all know how she lives. She keeps her house, miscalled a home, in spick-and-span order from front steps to back shed; her brass-

es shine, her carpets smell of the ware-room, and one can see his face in her mahogany; she shuts out dust and flies, and with them sunlight, fresh air, and all her family. She does allow the latter under stringent restrictions to eat and sleep within the walls, but it is at the cost of nearly every comfort, and in the poorest parts of the house. One whom I knew, kept her nine or ten immaculate rooms breathless and dark, and lived with her four children, winter and summer, in one low room over the kitchen. Naturally, the husband and father finding so few attractions there, stayed in his place of business till bedtime.

This deluded and all too common mother is usually conscientious and well-meaning, giving her life for what she considers the good of her family, while yet making the home which should be the happiest spot on earth, the abode of discomfort, and the nursery of discontent. And the children who grow up under her roof? How are they affected? There may be books and pictures, pretty things and comfortable places to enjoy them, in the shut-up rooms, but if they know them at all, it is not to benefit by them, they are as pleasures peeped at across a great chasm, something entirely unattainable; their wildest imagination never dreamed of using the treasures, of making them a part of their lives. Nor does the thought of beautiful objects as educators of the growing mind ever occur to such a mother; they are to be shut up, kept clean, dusted, polished, and preserved as "possessions."

Naturally the first impulse of the children is to escape from this barrenness of life. Out of doors is freedom to appropriate and to enjoy, and unfortunately this too falls in with the mother's plan. Out of doors, out of her way, they do not litter or "muss" and make work for her, or injure anything. What they are doing or what associations they are forming she does not consider.

What then does this system gain for the woman who carries it out? It maintains her furniture immaculate and her carpets unfaded, but it costs her the love and confidence of her children; it preserves her books from injury and her bric-a-brac from fracture, but it allows her little ones to grow up without culture of their finer nature; it prevents the inroads of dust and disorder, but it generally sours and embitters their temper, and it drives out into the world, away from her on the first opportunity, beings dearer

to her than all other earthly possessions.

No child in our day will stay a moment after he can get out of it, in a house given up to the deification of "things," and, consequently, to discomfort. The mother may count herself happy indeed, if her sons are not driven into evil courses and her daughters to hasty and unhappy marriages, for she has no influence over one of them. She is ordinarily left in middle life alone, with every child gone, and nothing but her "things" to console her, often too, wondering greatly why she is so bereft. Her fatal mistake has been in values.

During the growing years children should have, not only all the air and exercise but all the happiness they can take, consistently with the formation of habits of decency and order, and a proper respect for the rights of others. Mothers should thoroughly understand that the object of pretty rooms and furnishings, of books and pictures, is to give happiness by use, and, most important of all, to educate and train the growing and unfolding mind in the knowledge and love of beauty, and the enjoyment of the purer and nobler pleasures of life.

Nothing in the world, no education, no wealth, no advantage of whatever kind, is more valuable to a human being than a happy childhood. Besides its strong influence in the formation of character, it is through life an anchor that holds against many dangers, and a memory that sweetens many a bitterness; yet how can childhood be happy under the discomforts of slavery to "things"?

I wish I could picture as it deserves, a home I have known, where the house was lived in from one end to the other, children were taught to handle books and delicate things, and encouraged to use them. The wise mother, not being a "thorough housekeeper" was always a companion, almost a playmate of her children. She was from the first their best friend and confidante, ready with help in getting out of scrapes or repairing damages of all kinds, and participating in every joy and sorrow.

The result, now that her children are men and women, is worth a pilgrimage to see. They are not perfect, truly, but they are honest, sensible young men, with respect for women, and genuine, womanly young women. As to the house, its furnishings are not immaculate; everything shows that it has been used. But the beauty of the faded pictures and the sweetness of the well-used books have passed into the lives of her children and that mother is blessed.

Woman's Council Table.

A DAY IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

BY MRS. M. A. WADDELL RODGER.

"YOU might spend three months in the British Museum with profit," said Professor Marsh, as we hastened along the crowded London streets.

"Three months, Professor!" echoed Miss Vassar. "Three months among mummies and old stones and rubbish!"

"Ah! wait until you have been there," rejoined the professor. "It has become the treasure house of the ages. But here we are."

"Oh! let us begin with Assyria," cried little Mrs. Marsh. "We want to see those wonderful monuments that Mr. Layard found in 1849 in the palace of Sennacherib."

"You don't mean that Sennacherib immortalized by Byron, who came down upon Israel like the wolf on the fold, whose cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold?"

"The very same, Miss Vassar. Here, in the Kouyunjik Gallery, are alabaster bas-reliefs from his palace, which is supposed to have been injured by fire at the destruction of Nineveh. These slabs illustrate the conquests won by Sennacherib about 700 B. C. You see most of the figures are smaller than life, but with what freedom they are drawn. On this slab, you see, a river crosses the middle, on one side is the city besieged by Sennacherib's army; here, too, is a procession of captives and cattle; on the other side of the river is the king in his chariot with his attendants and more booty."

"Why, Professor, I had no idea that sculpture had reached any such degree of perfection among the Assyrians."

"That is not surprising, Miss Vassar; it is the weakness of every age and land to think that it only has attained to the best. Look at this jasper cylinder on which Darius wrote in three languages, Persian, Median, and Assyrian, 'I am Darius the great king.' Doubtless Darius considered himself the greatest king that had ever been, or would ever be."

"Ah, here is something interesting," exclaimed Mrs. Marsh, "tablets giving the Babylonian account of the creation! Here also is another series of tablets giving an account of the flood, by 'Umnapistum, the Babylonian Noah, who states that the gods within Suripak determined to make a flood. Umnapistum was commanded to build a ship and

put within it all his property, the members of his family, and the beasts and cattle of the field. The coming of the flood, its abatement, the resting of the ship on the mountain of Nizir, and the sending forth of a dove, a swallow, and a raven on the seventh day, are also told, together with the coming forth from the ship.' Why, it is almost identical with the Biblical account."

"Yes," said the professor, "these ancient records all tend to confirm the truth of the Biblical records. In history as in science when all the evidence is in, there will be found to be no conflict between reason and revelation."

"But look at this black marble obelisk. It is considered one of the most valuable historical monuments that has been brought from Assyria. You see it is ornamented with tiers of bas-reliefs extending around the shaft. These unsculptured portions, covered with cuneiform writing, record the history of thirty-one years of the reign of Shalmaneser, which began about 860 B. C. See, there is the name of Jehu, 'son of Omri' king of Israel, who with others gave tribute to Shalmaneser."

"Here," continued the professor, "is an old friend of our childhood, Nebuchadnezzar; this stone describes some privileges granted by him to Rittimarduk."

"You observed that conquest and sacrificial offering were the favorite subjects for portrayal in ancient times. Here is a bas-relief in which two kings are kneeling in adoration, each attended by a winged and triple-horned figure. This other slab shows the military and engineering methods of twenty-eight hundred years ago. See the arched gateways with ornamental moldings; the assailants mining, breaching, and scaling; a battering ram plied from the interior of a movable machine, surmounted by a tower, which is filled with archers and slingers; the besieged lowering grappling irons to catch the ram, and hurling fire-brands to ignite the machine; the besiegers playing water on the flames and each side discharging arrows and stones."

"See," said Mrs. Marsh, "how vividly this slab tells its story of cruel war,—the archers

behind the loop-holed screens and those poor impaled captives. How dreadfully barbarous!"

"Yes," rejoined the professor, "war was as hideous a monster then as now. Do you notice," continued he, "that all these colossal lions which decorated the temple doorways are provided with five legs? The reason was that they might appear perfect both from the front and the side."

"The Assyrians seem to have been more successful in portraying animals than human beings," remarked Mrs. Marsh.

"True, but the latest examples of Assyrian art show improvement, both in freedom of design and skillful execution. Look at this slab, which shows King Asshur-danni-pal and his queen holding a banquet. He reclines on a couch, she is seated on a chair at his feet. Attendants with fans, music, and viands are waiting upon them. See the birds in the trees, and the head of some vanquished foe hanging from one of the boughs."

"What a hideous accompaniment for a sunny picnic!" exclaimed Miss Vassar with a shudder.

"Well, we must bid Assyria goodbye, as here is the Phœnician room," said the professor. "Of course you know, Miss Vassar, that the Phœnicians were the Canaanites and were an ancient people when the Israelites drove them out of Canaan, 1300 B. C."

"Indeed, Professor! I had always supposed them to have been a barbarous people."

"By no means, they possessed a high degree of civilization. They were the commercial people of the olden times. They traded in ivory, jewels, linen, and perfumes and their gold, silver, and bronze work was famous throughout the world. In their buildings they used cedar wood and marble. Herodotus says their streets were well paved and that they built canals, aqueducts, and dams."

"My dear Professor," said Mrs. Marsh, as she touched his arm, "you are giving us a lecture, we came here to look."

"True, my dear, true," and the professor again put on his spectacles, saying as he did so, "Ah! Miss Vassar, that Moabite stone that you are examining was a great find. It records the war of Mesha, king of Moab, against the kings of Israel. The account is almost identical with that given in 2nd Kings, chapter 3. Here too is some of their bronze work, lions' heads and fire altars."

"Oh! Professor," called Miss Vassar, "do come to the Egyptian room. Here is none other than the lovely Cleopatra."

"Cleopatra!" we all exclaimed.

"Ah! yes, Cleopatra!" echoed the professor with a cynical smile, "somebody's Cleopatra, but not Marc Antony's nor even her mummy."

"The reason of the process is unknown," remarked the professor, as we wandered up and down among coffins and mummies, some of which are almost two thousand years old. "It has been supposed that it was to enable the soul to return to the body after it had passed through its transformations for thousands of years. It was a costly mode of interment, £244 for the best method and about £80 for the second. The coffins varied in form and material, under the different dynasties, and were usually inclosed in stone sarcophagi. On many of the colored coffins, as you observe, are representations of the judgment after death. The Egyptians were a very religious people. Notice upon the coffins the figures of snakes, birds, and other animals, all of which they worshiped. The sacred animals kept at the temples were duly embalmed and placed in cemeteries of their own. They were held in such honor that to kill a sacred animal was a crime punishable by death."

"What of the religion of the Egyptians?" asked Mrs. Marsh.

"Oh," replied the professor, "their religion would fill many volumes: their gods were divided into three classes, celestial, terrestrial, and infernal. Their great gods were associated with the sun and the local deities had various names."

"I am interested in *how* they lived," remarked Miss Vassar.

"They had some modern luxuries and comforts, as these mattresses, pillows, cushions, footstools, tables, and chairs testify. And the Egyptian ladies seem to have paid as much attention to the toilet as in our day. So you see the wigs and caps, girdles, sandals, earrings, necklaces, finger-rings."

"And even hair pins," chimed in Miss Vassar; "and was it possible those ancient beauties painted their pretty faces? These antique glass vases, it is said, were used for holding paint and perfumes. After all, you see, Professor, the good old times were no better than our own."

"Ah! but they had less light, my dear."

HABITABLE ROOMS.

BY ELLA RODMAN CHURCH.

FEW people appear to possess the happy art of giving a room a cheery livable look,—a look that makes it natural to sit down restfully there and feel at home. Gorgeous rooms there are in plenty: stately, richly furnished apartments that seem to repel rather than invite, and suggest only full dress and stiff conversation. The draperies are in keeping, somber and overpowering, and the pictures are anything but what a poet once called them, "loopholes of the soul." An atmosphere of coldness and distance pervades the whole; and a sensitive visitor to such arctic regions leaves them with a vivid consciousness of being chilled.

This same feeling, however, may be connected with much humbler apartments; places which, with some exercise of taste and common sense, could be made attractive in spite of cramped means. Dark, dismal rooms they often are, to begin with, looking out, perhaps, on a dingy street; and to invest such apartments with anything like cheeriness seems at first a hopeless task. It is discouraging, certainly—but not hopeless.

Sunshine, when it can possibly be had, is the first requisite, and Sydney Smith's idea of "glorifying" a room by throwing the windows wide open to the sunlight has a very plausible sound. But sunshine without restraint is not an unmitigated blessing. It is almost invariably a man's idea of cheerfulness; but a constant glare is quite as dreary as too much shade, and the dismayed housekeeper well knows that it exposes mercilessly all the weak points in her armor.

When sunshine is unavoidably absent or scanty, its absence can best be supplied by a glowing fire with the addition of a well-diffused light at night. A glowworm of a lamp, that lights merely the table on which it stands, can scarcely be said to "glorify" the room. All flame displays some tint of yellow, and in this fact there is much suggestion for the improvement of dull apartments,—as a bright fire or a good light will transform a room without any other aid. Who does not remember the poet's "rude, ill-furnished room" that, in the cheery blaze of a wood fire, "burst flowerlike into rosy bloom"? A pale shade of buff- or salmon-

colored paper on the walls will bring a suggestion of sunshine; and old-red hangings—also of a pale tint, that they may not absorb the light—will deepen the aspect of cheerfulness and contrast pleasantly with the walls.

The floor and other woodwork might be of a light golden-brown; and the central rug or carpet should show a ground of deeper buff or salmon than the walls, with figures in old-red shaded to pink and mingled with a little green and blue. The curtains for this dull room should have no lambrequins to shut out the light; and they should be loosely hung to push back readily as the light wanes. Plain, gold-tinted glass in the lower part of the window will shut out an undesirable view and make the room brighter.

It matters little whether the furniture be covered with plain, striped, or figured goods—except the disadvantage in wear of the first—so long as the coloring is harmonious and the articles comfortable; nor is it necessary to buy expensive things in order to make a room artistic and attractive. Frankly furnishing a parlor with cretonne, because it is inexpensive, has a far better effect than much of the cheap worsted or worsted-and-silk goods so frequently seen in commonplace rooms. There is no pretension about cretonne; while even the low-priced grades are often so artistic in design and soft in coloring that they are much more pleasing than many fabrics higher in the social scale. It gives an air of originality and refinement, and is not inharmonious with odd pieces of old silver, dainty bric-a-brac, and choice books. A room may be picturesque and full of comfort at the same time; and it is pleasant even to read of "a bright, chintz-hung bedroom where a fire was burning, and a large snow-white Persian cat was sleeping luxuriously on the white fur hearth rug."

It is a common mistake to suppose that a chintz-covered lounge, alias cretonne, can be manufactured at home quite as well as in a place where such work is constantly being done; but a woman with dexterous fingers can buy her lounge "in the muslin," according to the trade vocabulary, and put on its outer robe herself. It should be broad and a perfect sleepy hollow of elasticity; and at

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least two low armchairs and one large one should be arrayed in the same material. The other chairs may indulge in any amount of variety. Cretonne curtains must be carefully lined with silesia of a suitable color, or with unbleached muslin. If this is neatly done, and they are trimmed on the edges with a narrow fringe, they will hang well and have a good effect.

A pretty and inexpensive combination is to use red—turkey red—or blue twilled cotton, according to the predominating color of the cretonne; or, rather, the color that is to be emphasized or contrasted. Thus the seat of a chair or lounge is divided into four sections with blunt points turned toward the center, two of the sections being cut from each material. Delicately tinted sateens, with a preponderance of pale blue or green, combine very charmingly with turkey red.

A screen is always a picturesque as well as a useful piece of furniture, and offers a wide field to the inventive mind. A beautiful antique screen, the work possibly of royal fingers, may be seen in a valuable collection of old furniture in a foreign city. It is in three leaves, and the frame is entirely covered—the edge being decorated with large-headed brass nails. The covering is made in squares, and each square has four pointed sections; two of them being of emerald plush, while the other two resemble fine canvas embroidered with silk in delicate tints. The squares are separated by a narrow border daintily worked in pale shades of pink

and green; and the screen is very unique and rich-looking. The style could be satisfactorily reproduced with less expensive materials.

Another foreign device is a great improvement on the cardboard mottoes so much in vogue a number of years ago on the walls of modest residences; and one in a certain pretty room has for its groundwork a piece of cretonne well covered with a pattern of roses and ferns. The shape is somewhat oblong; and transversely over the already embroidered surface runs in a graceful curve the appropriate legend, "Lord, keep my memory green." The letters, which should be done in gold, are here dark-blue; but plainly framed in ebony and hung somewhat high on the wall, it looks like a quaint piece of antique needlework.

A straight mantel lambrequin in this style, with a suitable motto, would make an ordinary chimney-piece quite attractive; and panels, too, could be arranged on the same plan. Outlining the leaves and petals with silk would be a great improvement.

A look of space can be produced by skillful management when the thing itself is lacking; and drapery arranged as if over a door conveys the idea of a room beyond. A door that opened only into a small passage can be thus effectively utilized; and a mirror, not necessarily a large one, fastened on a closed door and properly draped—the drapery perhaps concealing a shabby frame—will enlarge the apparent size of a small room.

THE LADIES' ART ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

BY FANNIE PALMER TINKER.

A KEYNOTE in unison with the times was struck when the "Ladies' Art Association" was formed, and its work begun, first in New York, but later extending in such wide circles of usefulness that the association has become an international affair. And yet, notwithstanding the influence this society has had in art matters, comparatively little seems to be known of it outside of art circles.

It was as far back as in 1867, that the Association was founded, "by residents of the city and state of New York," its book of by-laws tells us. In 1877 it was incorporated,

and then its labors were begun in earnest. Its object was the promotion of the interests of women artists, and, appearing to have been created from the necessity of its existing, it has never had time to fold its hands in idleness since. It was about that time that the spirit of art awoke in our eastern cities, and women decided to reach out a hand, too, along with their brothers, for the bauble fame, which the goddess of the brush and palette held aloft for those who might happily step so high. New York suddenly, as it seemed, became alive with young art students, girls who had braved all sorts of deprivation and

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discouragement in order to obtain, if possible, a foothold in art, and their necessities were the forces which worked together to the forming of this society, which should help their young efforts and encourage their young ambitions.

The first to think the matter out and formulate plans for its work, were Mrs. Mary Strongthorn Pope, Miss Alice Donlevy, Mrs. George Kyle (since dead), and a few other art lovers, if not all artists, and much as these women felt the necessity for such a society, yet they builded better than they knew, for the usefulness of the association has been far-reaching beyond the wildest dreams of its founders, as a mention of some of its work will show.

It has for twenty years given instruction to thousands of students now scattered all over the country, who are earning their living and helping others to make a better living, teaching in schools and colleges, public and private, aiding thus in both primary and higher education. During this time it has aided women, strangers in New York, to earn an honorable livelihood without decreasing the wages of men, because the efforts of the association have been, and are still directed toward opening avenues for employment of women at home. It has trained workers in gold and silver, brass and copper, carvers on wood, and modelers in clay, as well as painters.

It was the first to give art industrial training to those already engaged as teachers in schools and seminaries, on Saturdays, vacations, and holidays. The first normal instruction in form and color in New York was given by the association in 1867. The first collection of the works of American women artists was made by the association, at 49 East 23d Street, at the house of Mrs. Elizabeth B. Phelps, in 1868, where paintings were sold and all the money received, paid to the painters. It established the first life school for women in 1869. The first free instruction in art applied to manufacturers in New York State was given by the association, and the first prize of \$100, offered by a wall-paper manufacturer, was given through this association, and taken by a member for an original working design. The first higher instruction in painting by any institution or association in New York, was given under its auspices; the first higher instruction established for women in the painting of porcelain, decoration of china, the first classes

in art industrial education founded for boys and girls.

The first exhibition combining pictures and articles of house decoration, embroidery, and costumes was given in 1877, and held in the Leavitt Gallery. The first exhibition of American pottery was held in 1880, and the first technical instruction given in New York in carpet designing and on reproductive pen and ink drawing in 1880.

With all of these noble ends accomplished, perhaps the association has never undertaken a better work than that which it proposes to do by what it terms suburban art exhibitions. That is, it intends to hold free exhibitions of paintings, sculpture, and decorative art work in small country towns and villages throughout the country in the hope of elevating the tastes of country folks, and in giving these hard-worked people, too, an opportunity to see something of interest outside their narrow home life.

The first of these exhibits has recently been held at a suburban village of Brooklyn, N. Y., and proved the success of the plan. A building which had formerly been built for a railway station was rented for the purpose and decorated with flowers and vines and frost-tinted foliage from the neighboring woods and fields, and the walls hung with paintings, etchings, sketches, and studies, while odd nooks held pieces of statuary, specimens of wood-carving, hammered brass, and burnt leather of odd devices. And not only was this made a matter of art education, but a social affair as well. Miss Donlevy, who had the exhibition in charge, inspired with the tact and wisdom of her sex, first got the young girls of the neighborhood interested in helping her decorate the rooms, and the small boys in fetching the wealth of field and forest for the purpose. Then she gave semiweekly receptions in the evening with the prettiest village maid and the farmer's rosiest daughter to assist her in receiving and entertaining. Great folk were invited out from the city and a grand good time was had by all. They were truly republican gatherings, where a pretty, shy country girl played hostess to some of the leading artists and authors of the world. On one occasion, the entertainment took the form of a Russian fête, when the association welcomed to its ranks its distinguished new member, Madame Korvin Pogosky, the Russian artist, who has carved out for herself success in a new direc-

tion in decorative art work, etching on wood with a hot iron.

There were present on this evening over three hundred people, among them being Madame Papritz Lineff, Mr. Bourchoff, a Russian sculptor of fame, Professor Ribikoff, who has received a gold medal from the Paris School of Science, and a number of Russian children in their native dress. From the countryside came farmers, country gentlemen and their families, conductors, brakemen, firemen, and engineers from the railroads, the village postman, the signal man from the crossing, and even the truckman who carts vegetables into Fulton Market, with his wife, decked out in her best gown. Everyone was polite and well-behaved and enjoyed not only the pictures, but the music and recitations as well. It was an evening not soon to be forgotten in that section of the country. On Saturday of each week Miss Donlevy invited the country children and devoted the time to giving them object lessons in art, explaining the subject of each picture, and telling them how pictures are made. The exhibition lasted a month, and was an unqualified success. It is now proposed to hold like exhibits throughout the country, and artists

and owners of art works are asked to loan pictures for these exhibitions for the purpose of thus encouraging and cultivating latent artistic talent in children and young people who otherwise would know nothing of art.

The studio building of the Ladies' Art Association is now 23 East 14th Street, New York. The idea of a studio building originated with Mrs. Mary Strongthorn Pope, the first president, as a plan for the protection of women by women. In May, 1881, a building was hired for three years at 24 West 14th Street. Eight studios were let with artistic and womanly privileges, at cost rates. The entire first floor was used for art study and instruction, lectures, meetings, a picture gallery, etc.

Later the association moved into its present quarters. It has also studios in Washington, Brooklyn, and other cities in America, and one in Paris, at 17 Avenue Gougard.

The officers of the association are, president, Mrs. Frances E. Fryall; vice presidents, Miss H. Maud Henry, Mrs. Abraham S. Isaacs, Miss Mary Stoyell Oppenheimer, and Miss Sarah Rachel Hardy; corresponding secretary, Miss Alice Sterer; recording secretary, Miss Alice Donlevy; treasurer, Miss E. C. Field; custodian, Mrs. J. Hoeber.

POST MORTEM PRAISE.

BY KATE TANNATT WOODS.

I THINK it was Shelley who wrote,
 "For love, and beauty, and delight,
 There is no death, no change."

The poet referred to the passing on from the present to a higher life, but said nothing of the deathlike loneliness endured by many human beings who are endowed, like the sensitive plant of which he wrote, with natures attuned to every touch and hearts burdened with the woes of the world. This is the heritage of most poets, the temperament of many noble men and women, who, while they suffer, "still live to bless." The finer the organization, the keener must be the sympathy; and this largeness of heart and capacity of feeling "others' woes" is not by any means weakness of character.

Much of human suffering is needless; much arises from misunderstanding, broken laws, selfishness, ingratitude, and, more than all,

from false ideas of propriety and unwise conventionalisms, with absurd rules of etiquette. It is not "good form" to show any feeling; it is not conventional to bestow praise; and yet, it is both good form and conventional to exhibit every symptom of grief, even to the weighting of the body with folds of gloomy sable.

Unfortunately, a large portion of society finds employment in condemnation rather than in commendation, in criticism rather than appreciative praise. We wait until men die and then we enumerate their good qualities; we delay all appreciative words concerning a good woman who has suffered crucifixion, until she has passed beyond the sound of our voices. If a spiritual surgeon could examine the souls of many who have left us, he might well pronounce upon them such verdicts as, "chilled by the coldness or carelessness of her fellow-men," "heart failure for

want of heart cheer," or "lack of sympathetic appreciation."

The man or woman does not live who is absolutely independent of his or her fellows. An air of superiority, or self-poise born of custom or possible inheritance may deceive a few, but the heart-throb which makes us one kin is somewhere hidden in every human being. It is the Divine in us. All the history of Christ proves this: His wanderings with His disciples, His human woe, hunger, sadness, tears, and joy. He holds us close to Him by His humanity and sustains us by His spiritual power. His exalted nature demanded sympathy and the "well done" which consecrates all sacrifice, and we, His followers, feel its need to-day. Why should we stint our poor human praise for any struggling fellow-creature when the Perfect One gave open encouragement to those who went with Him and "talked by the way"?

The egotist cannot be injured by over praise because he is already wise in his own eyes, while the sensitive toiling soul may shrink from contact with his fellows when no kindly hand reaches out to greet him and no generous voice speaks approval. The clergyman who preaches Sunday after Sunday to an audience who receive his words in silence goes back to his study, depressed in mind and exhausted in body; the greater his earnestness the more complete is his sense of prostration. He questions his own powers. Has he said the right word in the right way? Has he touched any sympathetic chord in the heart of one hearer? Has he lifted one soul from despair and doubt to spiritual heights? Will any one who listened, find life a better thing and the future gilded with hope for his words? He does not know. The Sunday audience cannot applaud approved utterances like a secular one. He has done his best and only the Master knows what the harvest may be.

Let us change all this for him. Creeping out from the side aisle as he walks wearily down the pulpit steps, comes a woman, her sad face peering from folds of crape; she grasps his hand and says, "Oh, sir, you have comforted me more than I can tell, I shall live on those precious words and comforting thoughts for weeks to come." How the glad light quickens in his eyes, how soon exhilaration follows, and how earnestly, from his heart, but not his lips ascends a *jubilant Deo*. Why wait for him to die before we accord him just due? Why withhold our praise when

encouragement is the stimulus he needs for further effort? The war horse, struggling to the front, flies faster and surer for his master's encouraging words of cheer, but at the last, when a stray bullet has laid him prostrate, what matters for him, either praise or blame?

The busy author, working in the seclusion of the study bends over the paper with every nerve and muscle tense with creative thought. The great world outside will read the written word by and by, the grim hand of the printers will toss it from case to case with careless speed; the critics will cut and pierce it, with their stilettos sharpened by long practice, and all up and down the scale of human fancies, likes, and dislikes, the work will travel, but not one will think of that supreme moment, or hours, and days may be, of creative effort, when, to the weary hand came more than human strength, and a voice seemed to be whispering, "I say unto thee write." Sometimes, a kindred spirit, moved by a divine impulse, writes from a far-away corner of God's green earth a loving word, and adds a blessing; and then the heart that doubted grows strong, and the palsied hand is filled with new life, and the brain teems with quick coming fancies.

Never withhold a kindly word while your friends can listen. Do not wait until the silence of death comes, to say all that can be said in praise. Kindness has helped thousands to lead better lives while unkindness and neglect have slain tens of thousands. The praise so cruelly withheld in life is given lavishly after death.

A few short weeks ago, I stood near the casket which held the form of a man well known in the world for his many gifts; above him eloquent speakers enumerated his many virtues and around him stood men of distinction to do him honor. Every one had a kind word for him; every one remembered some generous deed or some noble trait, and yet, memory carried me back to a day not very far in the past, when he was stung by false accusations, misrepresented, assailed in public and private, and unable to take up a daily paper without finding himself abused; even his honesty was called in question, but he had walked on proudly, conscious of his integrity. I shall never forget that fine sad face, as he said during that time of trial, "I am not sour or bitter but God knows I am *sore*; a whole life of earnest effort is forgotten; and the deepest wounds are

given by those I called my friends."

A few sentences from those brilliant utterances above his inanimate form, bestowed on him while smarting from the stings and arrows of the envious and malicious, might have saved keen hours of mental pain; and who can tell how much more he might have done for the world he enriched by his genius and scholarly attainments?

"To bear," says Campbell, "is to conquer our fate," but alas, for those who cause any fellow pilgrim to "bear needless pain." Tell your wife of her virtues, O husband, your child of its powers as well as its faults, and

each friend of all the good you can discover. And women, sisters in spirit, and in flesh, spare not a word of praise while you deal lightly with reproach. You cannot see the inner trial, you cannot discern the sorrow half hidden by pride, you may never know what canker lurks behind a smile, or measure the misery gilded by wealth and social position. You may not even feel the power of superior gifts; but speak kindly, warmly, earnestly, truthfully, before the shadows fall and we all pass on to the higher life.

"To live in hearts we leave behind,
Is not to die."

WOMEN IN HUNGARY.

BY ELIZABETH ROBINS PENNELL.

I HAVE just been reading Mr. Poultney Bigelow's "Paddles and Politics down the Danube." I hardly know under which heading he would classify the women of Hungary, upon whom he lavishes his praise, but it was in what he had to say about them that I was most interested. A woman always likes to hear how women in other parts of the world live and what they do. But the subject appeals to me doubly, since it is but a year since I was in Hungary, where all I saw of woman's life made a deep impression upon me.

Let me begin by quoting Mr. Bigelow's most rapturous paragraph in which he sums up the Hungarian woman's virtues. Hers, he says, is the "common education of the ordinary schools, the smattering of literature, history, etc. Then she is invariably a good musician—not a piano strummer, but one who grows up in an atmosphere where music is the interpreter of daily feeling. The Hungarian sings as we dull mortals talk. Some sing better than others, but none sing as badly as our performing amateurs. Then as a housekeeper, what a treasure is the Hungarian! She can teach her cook everything worth knowing, relieve her when necessary, manage the house into the bargain, and never once let her guests suspect that she even gives it a thought. Where the Anglo-Saxon mistress retires to her bedroom to cry with vexation, the Hungarian lady fills the house with her melody, and concocts a new sauce to the tune of a tschandasch."

The picture may be a trifle overdrawn, but it is true enough. Only I do not think the Hungarian woman herself looks upon it with Mr. Bigelow's rapture. I fancy in the matter of education she is a little envious of the advantages of the Englishwoman or the American. While I was in Buda-Pesth I was told of a scheme then preparing for a woman's college in that town, for which I was assured by certain literary men who considered themselves "advanced," there was sore need. There are many who think she would be all the better for more than a common smattering. That she has not, in this respect, progressed as rapidly as the Englishwoman is the more surprising as in the past she has had greater political privileges, and a hundred years ago she had studied herself and her position so thoroughly that a number of Magyar women sent up a petition to Parliament for their own enfranchisement, just about the time that Candorctet in France was preaching woman's rights and Mary Wollstonecraft in England was bringing out her famous book.

I do not mean to say there are no well-educated women in Hungary; that would be nonsense. I myself met several who, wives of scholars, worked with their husbands, ably and unostentatiously. I met others who did good and clever work as journalists and translators. But I think that Mr. Bigelow's phrase, "the smattering of literature, history," etc., would be found the rule and not the exception. In one particular, how-

ever, but few Englishwomen and Americans can compete with the Hungarian; this is in her practical knowledge of many languages. Her own, the Magyar, is of small use outside of her own country. The Hungarian who would keep up with the rest of the world, must be familiar with at least one foreign language. As a rule he speaks German, for though he may hate it as the speech of the enemy, he cannot very well get along without it. But there was scarce a house into which I went where I did not find that the women could talk French as well, often Roumanian, while the younger girls now are all learning English.

As a housekeeper, the Hungarian woman is perfection. She realizes new ideals of what our grandmothers used to be. She devotes herself to her house, and concentrates her attention, above all, on her table. She cooks as well as many a famous Paris *chef*. This is the accomplishment in which she chiefly excels. There is no necessity of her joining a cooking class or going to a cookery school. She studies her art in her own home, under her mother's superintendence, and with her earliest lessons her responsibility begins. The daughters of the family, if there are any, manage the kitchen department. I remember two very pretty sisters, girls of fourteen and sixteen, in a Buda-Pesth household, who took turns, week by week, in attending to all the housekeeping; many an American woman of double the age of either might think herself fortunate if she possessed but a little of the same skill and experience.

The Hungarian hospitality, so proverbial it seems useless now to undertake to prove it, most probably has had much to do in developing the domestic talents of the women; they are eager to serve something worthy of their guests and will spare no pains to procure it. Let me give but one example; it throws much light on the Hungarian point of view. By a Buda-Pesth friend, whom my husband and I came across again in a remote part of Transylvania, we were driven out one day from a small town to the house of some people who lived on the outskirts of a tiny village. They were not expecting us; my husband and myself they had never seen or heard of before; they had just finished dinner. But what of that? We could not

leave them without breaking bread under their roof, though in so out-of-the-way a village even bread is not always to be had at a minute's notice. But before an hour had passed another dinner was served for us, a banquet almost. I could not help wondering in how many American houses our hosts, had they come as strangers as we came to them, would receive so gracious and, more than that, so elaborate and troublesome a hospitality.

But this is a subject upon which I run the risk of becoming diffuse, so many were the pleasant hours spent with Hungarian friends, so many the delicious dinners eaten, now in a pretty garden of Buda-Pesth, overlooking the windings of the Danube, now in a no less pretty Transylvanian garden among the hills, every chance was given me to test the Hungarian woman's talents as housekeeper.

But here again I doubt if she would be as enthusiastic as the foreigner who visits her. Or rather I know that she would not. More than one of the friends I made spoke to me with bitterness of the place she held in her husband's household. "I am his servant," more than one said to me. There is a charming custom among little Hungarian girls—kept up, indeed, until they are seventeen or eighteen—to dip you a courtesy when you shake hands with them, and to me it seemed typical of the way later they must go through life. Metaphorically speaking, the women are always courtesying or serving. I was struck by the fact that in many of the houses I went to, the mother and daughters or sisters stayed in kitchen or dining room until the last minute before the meal was served, no matter how many were the servants, and that one or the other helped to wait, when we sat at table. "You see," a woman in a Transylvanian town explained, "you see, we women in Hungary are always expected to serve our host and his guests."

For the outsider, the Hungarian woman, often beautiful, always well dressed, a perfect cook, an accomplished housekeeper, lends great charm to life, and this, without considering her social attractions, of which, in so short a paper, I have not had space to speak. But one cannot help looking at these things from the personal standpoint. And I, for my part, would rather dine less well, and have more leisure.

Woman's Council Table.

COMMON MISTAKES IN ENGLISH.

BY ANNA CHURCHELL CAREY.

AMONG the many maxims which are attributed to George Washington is the one that we are judged by the company we keep; but a test quite as good is the grammar we use and the English we speak. If one happens to enter into conversation with a stranger, it is very easy to judge by his choice of words whether the person is a man of refinement and education.

It is true that only of recent years has English been taught in the schools and colleges, which explains why some of the most cultivated as well as highly educated persons make mistakes in their English.

In spite of all the training one gets in later life one's method of speech comes largely from what one hears and reads. Many of the popular writers of the past generation were very inaccurate in their use of English and their bad example was largely followed by their readers. No author has been more widely read than Dickens, his "Pickwick Papers" being the most popular book in the English language with the exception of the Bible, and yet he is one who constantly uses the most careless and incorrect English. For instance, he invariably says *ain't* and *don't* in place of *am not* and *doesn't*. There are people of intelligence who seem unable to find any difference between *ain't* and *am not*, and *don't* and *doesn't*. As for *ain't*, neither Webster nor Worcester gives it, while the Century Dictionary says that "it is a vulgar contraction of the negative phrases *am not* and *are not*; often used for *is not* and also with a variant *hain't* for *have not* and *has not*." It is a careless corruption, and no one of refinement, knowledge, or conscience in the use of English will allow himself to use it.

The misuse of *don't* is quite different. It is a legitimate contraction from *do not*, and the common mistake is in making it take the place of *doesn't* quite as often as it is put to its own proper use. *Don't* is a word that is probably more misused than any other, especially by the educated. One of the most learned men in this country, a man prominent in educational matters, a writer of books and one of the leading lights in the Concord School of Philosophy, invariably says *don't* instead of *doesn't*; a mistake inexcusable in a person of

even mediocre intelligence. The mistake in the use of the word is putting a singular noun with a plural verb; as for instance, in the sentence, "It don't make any difference," there are many persons who would not notice the blunder, so accustomed have they become to hearing the word used incorrectly.

The story is told of a teacher of English in one of the New York schools, who in explaining to her class the difference between *shall* and *will* ended by saying, "I don't know why it is, but a Bostonian never makes a mistake in the use of these two words, while a New Yorker always does." It is unnecessary to say where the young woman's home was. But there seems no intrinsic reason why even a New Yorker should not master the difference in the meaning of the two words. *Will* expresses volition and applies to the present time, as "I will do it," meaning, "I intend doing it at once," while *shall* refers to futurity. For instance, "I shall go to the city"—sometime—or "I shall die"—eventually. If one should say, "I will die," he would correctly mean, "I am going to die, very soon, within a certain short time or am determined to die at once." The same rule applies to *should* and *would*.

Many of the mistakes made in grammar are through carelessness rather than ignorance. Certainly the verb *to be* is responsible for a great deal, yet those who misuse *don't*, and perhaps are guilty of allowing *ain't* in their vocabulary, will be most particular about using this verb with the nominative case. It is very common, though, to hear people say, "It is him," "It is her," "It is us," "It is them," when in order to express their idea correctly they should say, "It is he," "It is she," "It is we," "It is they." To use this verb correctly is a test in English. If the teacher from whom we have already quoted could have heard a Boston gardener say as he handed a lady some flowers, "Are these they?" she would no doubt have been more confirmed than ever in her belief in the general correctness of speech in her native city.

To use the word *want* incorrectly is not so glaring a fault as the ones just mentioned, but it is very rarely used in its purest sense. Correctly speaking *want* means *lack*, and we

are wont to think that when we lack a thing we need it and so wish it; and in that way it has grown to have the meaning of *wish*. *Want* in its purest sense means *need*, and one who is careful to use the correct word to express his idea will find that he can almost invariably use *need* or *wish* instead. On the score of euphony *want* has little to commend it and it should not be used if one can avoid it.

Another distinction which careful people make is in speaking of *those kinds of things* or *that kind of thing*, instead of saying as many do, *those kind of things*; the adjective *those* is plural, so it must have the plural *kinds* instead of *kind* to go with it.

There is a distinction to be made between the use of the words *in* and *at*. One should say *in a box*, *in a house*, but *at a place*—at Pittsburg, at Boston, never *in* Pittsburg. If one says *in a city*, it is correct, as it has then the sense of being inclosed, included within, surrounded; but if you specify the city, then *at* should be used.

In the same way one should say, "I go to do a thing," not go *and* do it.

In a certain post office hangs a sign, "Remember *and* ask for a receipt for your registered letters." As it stands, the two verbs are co-ordinate; the person is to ask and also to remember—anything he pleases. If it were written, Remember *to* ask, the true relation between the two verbs would be indicated, and the sentence would then convey the idea which the government intended that it should. Again, on one of the old issues of postal cards was printed, "Nothing but the address *can* be put on this side." It was an obvious absurdity. *Can* signifies power, and one *could* write anything there that he pleased. But though he could, he might not, and the word *may*, which conveys the idea of

permission, should have been used instead of *can*.

A common mistake is made in the use of *hanged* and *hung*; only criminals are hanged, while pictures are hung.

The training in correct speech should begin in childhood and be continued unremittently until the habit is formed and the ear educated. Children have much to unlearn in the poor English and bad grammar which they hear from their nurses, and when a child makes a mistake the fault should at once be pointed out, and he should be required to repeat the sentence in correct form in order to fix the difference in the mind.

Of the same number of men and women of the same class in life, those whose advantages have been about equal, the chances are the women will be more correct in their speech than the men. And there is good reason for it. A woman's life is more given to details than that of a man, and the tendency is to make her more careful as well as more observant and ready to perceive slight differences, and besides she is so situated as to be guarded from much companionship which falls to her father and brother, which must have a tendency to lower their standard of speech. Still, the women are far from being beyond criticism, although it is said that it is upon them that we must rely to preserve the purity of the English tongue.

When Matthew Arnold was about to leave America after his first visit here, he was credited with having said that the most perfect English that he had heard while in this country was from the Bostonians. To their height we may not all aspire; but there is no reason why every person of average mind and intelligence should not use pure and accurate English.

THE PIONEER OF WOMAN'S HIGHER EDUCATION.

BY MRS. M. F. HOAGLAND.

THE eighteenth century had come to an end and the nineteenth well begun, before the advanced education of woman became a matter of thought, much less of execution. In America, at least, the women were not only housekeepers, but to a great extent the manufacturers of the clothes worn by themselves, their hus-

bands and children, but they spun the flax and wove the cloth. All were imbued with a strong patriotism, and more especially the women of New England, for there was the first soil drenched with the blood of their forefathers. There lived sturdy men and women who endured hardships and toil in order to sow the seeds of liberty. Books were few,

leisure limited. In many families was there such a thirst for knowledge, the time being so husbanded, that some member of the family read aloud while others attended to the household duties. Around the great open fire, where the burning logs gave warmth and light, the family gathered to be instructed and amused as the long winter evenings passed.

In such a household was reared Emma Hart Willard. She first saw the light February 23, 1787, in the Parish of Worthington, Berlin, Conn. Born of the best New England stock, she inherited the noblest qualities of her parents. Her father, healthy in body, strong in intellect, availed himself of the few books to be had, and was well read in the English literature of the time. Her mother was a quiet and practical woman, gifted with native tact and shrewdness, gentle, firm, and efficient. In this household were seventeen children, of whom Emma was the sixteenth.

After these children had spent six hours in the schoolroom, they assembled around the evening fireside to listen to reading and instruction by the father and to discuss topics suitable for their youthful minds. Thus conversation and thought were encouraged. Before this gathering assembled, each child had attended to the small duties which were allotted to it, and the larger girls knit and sewed during these evening hours. "Not only were these children taught the duties of home life, but kindness and benevolence to those who had less of this world's goods, and even the birds were remembered when the refuse wool was put in the bushes that they might have material to build their fleecelined nests."

Such home training with two years' study at the village school, was her fitting for active life. At the age of seventeen she began teaching in the village school. Her salary was seventy-five cents per week. "The first day's teaching made the pupils feel that strong judgment and insight were her characteristics; so that the rod, which had reigned supreme, was discarded and the law of love took its place."

After teaching one year, she was placed at the head of the Berlin Academy; then for a short time, she entered a prominent school in Hartford. In the spring of 1807 Miss Hart received invitations to take charge of schools in three different states.

She accepted the call to Westfield, Mass. She remained there but a few weeks when she was prevailed upon to go to Middlebury, Vt. Here she remained principal of a girls' academy for two years. The school was prosperous, but Miss Hart decided to enter a smaller school. In 1809 she resigned and married Dr. John Willard, then marshal of the District of Vermont, who was for several years a leader of the Whig party of that state. Dr. Willard had financial difficulties, and to assist him Mrs. Willard established a boarding school at Middlebury and determined to effect important changes in the education of girls by introducing higher branches and a more thorough course of study. "She applied herself assiduously," says Mrs. Hale, "to increase her own personal abilities as a teacher, by the diligent study of branches with which she had before been scarce acquainted." She prepared an address to the public entitled "A Plea for the Improving of Female Education." The following are the main points of the address: First, a want of suitable accommodations, as well as the necessary apparatus for instruction. Second, incompetency of instructors, those who keep the schools being unable and sometimes unwilling to pay for properly trained and cultured teachers. Third, imperfection in organization. Fourth, tendency to teach accomplishments rather than useful and solid branches.

General van Schoonmaker, a man of intelligence, at that time on inspecting the "Plan," heartily approved of it, and recommended and exhibited it to the leading men of Waterford. At their recommendation a copy was sent to Governor De Witt Clinton. He immediately wrote to Mrs. Willard expressing a most cordial desire that she would remove her institution to the state of New York. He also recommended the subject of her "Plan" in his message to the legislature. The result was the passage of an act to incorporate the proposed institution at Waterford, being the first law ever passed by any legislative body with the direct object of improving female education.

In 1819 Mrs. Willard removed to Waterford. The higher mathematics was introduced in the course of study, it never having been thought necessary for women to pursue this science; now women were fitted for any position in life where this preparation was needed. The people of Troy saw Mrs. Wil-

lard's ability, and offered inducements for her to take her school to that city. The Troy Female Seminary was opened in May, 1821. From that time for many years this was the most celebrated school for the education of girls in this country.

In 1825 Dr. Willard died and Mrs. Willard continued her school till her health was impaired, and in 1830 she visited France. She also traveled in England and Scotland. She wrote an account of her travels for which she received twelve hundred dollars; she sent this amount to Greece to be used in the school for girls. This school was established through opposition, and this very difficulty sharpened her zeal and produced large sums to carry on the work of giving to the women of Greece that which she had labored to procure for women in her native land.

A writer in *Les Beaux Mondes* of the time says: "The most elevated views have determined the important attempt of some American ladies of establishing in Athens a normal school of native teachers; thus improving civilization at its source. Mrs. Sigourney, Mrs. Hale, and Mrs. Phelps were among those who entered warmly into the views of Mrs. Willard, and aided her in carrying them out with their pens and influence. But that the thought had arisen in the minds of a few of Mrs. Willard's old pupils that her work for women demanded some token of respect, the question might remain unanswered. She was the founder of this school in Greece." Do the women who have enjoyed the blessings arising from advanced education know that to this woman they are indebted for arousing this spirit three quarters of a century ago?

Mrs. Willard added to her ability as a teacher also that of an author. She wrote history, ancient geography, text-books, and a book of travels. She also published a small book of poems. While she was crossing the Atlantic she wrote that charming poem which has been set to delightful music, "Rocked in the cradle of the deep."

In addition to this work she often addressed large gatherings on educational subjects. In 1845, by special invitation, she attended the convention of town and county superintendents, held at Syracuse. She was asked to take part in the public debate but declined to do so; she was waited upon by sixty gentlemen to whom she read an address. The topic was, "That women now

sufficiently educated be employed and furnished by the men as committees, charged with the minute care and supervision of the common schools, reasoning from the premises that to man it belongs to provide for the children, while upon woman it is incumbent to take the provision and apply it economically and judicially."

In 1845 Mrs. Willard made an educational tour through the United States, visiting all the southern states except Texas. She instructed more than five hundred teachers. Her idea was that the teachers in girls' schools should be women of solid education, well-balanced minds, and thorough disciplinarians, but while women were the teachers the mothers should feel that they have a great work to do, and that the men should aid in supervising the whole.

Mrs. Willard published a treatise on "The Motive Powers which Produce the Circulation of the Blood," which brought to her fame, both in America and England. The *London Critic* said, "We have here a woman undertaking to discuss a subject that has perplexed and baffled the ingenuity of the most distinguished anatomists and physiologists who have considered it, from Harvey down to Paxton, and what is more remarkable, so acquitting herself as to show she apprehended as well as the best of them, the difficulties which beset the inquiry; perceived as quickly as they did the errors and incongruities of the theories of previous writers; and lastly herself propounded an hypothesis to account for the circulation of the blood and the heart's action, eminently entitled to the serious attention and examination of all who take an interest in physiological science."

At the age of sixty Mrs. Willard published her book on "The Motive Power of the Circulation of the Blood," at sixty-two she wrote on "Respiration," and at sixty-five she wrote a text-book on astronomy, which was largely used. Thirteen thousand girls were educated at her school. Fourteen schools for the education of girls have been established in New York City and Brooklyn by women who were educated at her school. The question is now asking, when and with whom originated this idea for the advanced education of women? To Mrs. Emma Hart Willard must be accorded this honor. Though late, it is well to erect a monument and continue a school on the same spot where her school stood for so many years.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

THE IMMIGRATION QUESTION.

A FEW foreigners settle in our southern cities but the rural regions of the South know them not. It is a noteworthy fact that only in our South is the native American practically the sole representative of the white race; and we should be startled by the immense preponderance of the foreign element in our states of the Upper Mississippi Valley if we did not know that most of these incomers are sturdy Scandinavians and Germans who rapidly assimilate the spirit of our institutions and are loyal and law-abiding citizens. More than half the white residents of our western states are of foreign birth or parentage and nearly as large a proportion of the people in our nine North Atlantic states are of recent transatlantic extraction. But the West fares better than the East in respect to its foreign element. The larger part of the ignorance, the squalor, the thriftlessness, and the lawlessness that comes to us from Europe settles down within a few hundred miles of the Atlantic seaboard. The larger cities of the West have more than they want of the dregs, but, on the whole, the West has escaped the greater part of the infiction.

We have reached a point where our people will gladly welcome the exercise of any proper influence or official power that shall greatly reduce the volume of immigration. Official Europe will be glad if this predominant desire is fulfilled. Not a single European power has looked with pleasure upon the mighty stream of emigration that has added nearly 6,000,000 to our population within the past decade. When the stream began to flow westward all Europe tried by every means to check it. Russia to-day prohibits the emigration of all whom she considers it her interest to keep at home. Austria-Hungary permits no agency within her borders to invite emigration, and the newspaper press aids the government to stem the tide. In 1887 one per cent of the population of Western Prussia crossed the ocean to new homes. No wonder that German leaders are debating how to keep their people, if not at home at least under their

flag. But there are elements of Europe's population which may well be spared at home and which we do not want; and too many of these classes have reached our hospitable shores.

Very nearly one half the immigrants from Great Britain, Ireland, Germany, and Scandinavia are of the female sex. The men have come in good faith to make homes here and have brought their families with them. But four in every five of the Italian, Bohemian, and Hungarian immigrants are men. They are here, as the Chinese are, to live on a pittance, save what they can, and take their hoardings out of the country. A large part of them cannot read or write. There is no reason why we should wish to keep them here. There are good reasons why we should desire them not to come at all.

In the decade beginning with 1870 the rush from Hungary, Italy, and Poland began. American capital, invested in coal mines, first advertised the fact through its agents sent to Southern Europe, that there was independence and fortune in America for down-trodden workmen who at home earned only twenty to sixty cents a day. It was the Hungarians, Slavs, and Bohemians they enticed, who supplanted the Welsh, Scotch, and Irish miners. Then came the contract labor law, but not before the cheap and specially imported labor had sent word home that kindled an emigration fever and precipitated the avalanche of the past eleven years. It is largely the 1,100,000 Hungarians, Poles, Italians, and Bohemians who have come to us during these last years, fully half of whom are utterly unfit to be residents of this country, who have awakened alarm and stimulated a demand for the repression of immigration.

Fully four fifths of this enormous mass of ignorance and degradation is to-day centered in our seaboard cities or scattered through towns and mines and along railroad lines within a few hours' ride of New York City. These people have reduced the blocks they occupy in the metropolis to depths of squalor unknown there before and only the constant scrutiny of the sanitary police keeps them from becoming a menace to the public health.

We are always aware of their proximity. In the past decade nearly a million and a half of Germans came to this country and it is said that fully two thirds of them are making homes for themselves west of Buffalo and Pittsburg. More than half of the Irish settle in the cities of the Middle Atlantic states, while two thirds of the Scandinavians push on to the wheat fields of the Northwest. Most of the vast throng disappears from the port of entry like water on the sand. Absorbed by the great demand for skilled and unskilled labor they benefit the country and themselves; and we are hardly aware of the thousands who have been added to their number until we see the census returns. It is not so with the unwelcome element from southern and eastern Europe. They are always manifest. Sixty per cent of them cannot read newspapers but they are always in them. Most of them earn honestly their hard-won dollars but not all; and it has been proved that not a few of them have become naturalized citizens apparently for the sole purpose of barter and sale on election day and a dollar apiece for votes has contented them.

Congress will undoubtedly take up the immigration question again this winter and will at least act upon the legislation now pending. But the safeguards our present laws provide are not efficiently utilized. We have laws against convict immigration; but our consuls in Italy assert that many of the criminal class escape prosecution at home by emigrating to the United States. The act of March 3, 1891, provides that steamship companies shall not, through agents and circulars, endeavor to increase the emigrant traffic; but since the bill became law the flamboyant methods by which one great company allures crowds to its steerage have been exposed. Commercial Agent Griffin wrote from Limoges a year ago that criminals and young girls not in the care of their families were on their way to this country and suggested that the best interests of the United States demanded the most careful scrutiny of Italian immigrants. Happily, the recent cholera scare and the manifest unfitness of many of last year's immigrants are resulting in a more rigid enforcement of the laws.

Congress really has not facts before it that are likely to lead to any decided improvement upon our present regulations. Above all we should not have any haphazard legislation.

H-Jan.

What is needed and what the country will probably demand is a careful investigation of the whole question as a necessary preliminary to law-making upon such momentous and delicate questions as the repression of immigration and, possibly, the restriction of the right of franchise to those newcomers who show their ability to exercise it intelligently.

SENSATIONAL FICTION AND TRUE ROMANCE.

ON account of the turn given to current discussion of fiction-writing, romance is now treated as if it were necessarily sensational, when in fact nothing could be farther from the truth. The greatest writers of fiction in all ages have been romancers; but no truly great novelist was ever sensational in his methods of composition. Shakespeare's plays are the highest types of fiction. Scott's novels are the highest types of prose fiction. Is Shakespeare sensational? Our contemporary realists would probably say that he is; some of them have already laid the charge at Scott's door. But if we apply the test of nature, and inquire of actual life, what will be the answer?

In nature we find the most startling and thrilling things happening every day. Heroic suffering, dastardly cowardice, surprises of delight, supreme calamities, noble achievements, wonderful discoveries, high tides of fortune, inscrutable misery, all blend together in everyday human life. True romance is the romance of nature selected and presented by genius. The theory of the realists is good enough; but their practice is to picture only the commonplace side of life, or mayhap the miserable side.

Romance, however, is not always optimistic. It can scarcely be said that "Romeo and Juliet" presents a very encouraging view of human experience, nor does the "Bride of Lammermoor" or "The Heart of Midlothian" have a cheering effect on the reader. All calamities, all unusual disturbances of life's equilibrium, are romantic and in one view sensational; but on the other hand unusual lifts of good fortune and all sudden-coming blessings, all grand dreams and all superb achievements belong to the same list; they shock the realists and are considered by them the mere lumber of romantic garrets not any longer interesting or valuable.

When philosophically thought out, the difference between true romance and realism as practiced by our novelists of to-day will be found merely a difference in viewing life. If a writer can feel nothing interesting in what is above the average, if to him life ceases to be natural when it oversteps the bounds of commonplace, that writer will not make romance; he will, indeed, out of the perversity resident in small minds, produce something below the average of humdrum experience. On the other hand the mind that takes in only the unusual and extraordinary will tend to leap beyond the average of possibilities and will produce something sensational. The true mean between these extremes is the level of true romance, and, therefore, we always find the broadest and most powerful minds, minds like Napoleon's, Hugo's, Goethe's, Shakespeare's, Scott's, Milton's, Darwin's, forming vast combinations out of the romantic realities. Imagination, in the case of these men, dealt wholly with facts, and yet what extraordinary, what picturesque, what original constructions were achieved!

When Newton brought to the human understanding a great and hitherto hidden process of force he did just what the true romancer always does; he stepped over the line and stood outside the limit of commonplace and yet kept within the strong pale of truth to nature. The modern realist has yet to learn, has yet to comprehend, that whatever may happen in real life is perfectly legitimate in romance. Then he has further to learn that the power of choosing wisely among these legitimate materials so as not to present immoral and demoralizing pictures, is the highest gift of genius. For what is abstractly legitimate in art is not always practically wholesome. Here again the extremes are quite apparent. On one hand the conscienceless realist naturally pushes his theory into the gutter of salacity; on the other hand the visionary romancer rushes unrestrained upon the stumbling-block of hysterical sentimentality. Great minds have always felt their way easily to the level of well-balanced wisdom. It is in the display of this lofty and, so to say, solid quality of judgment that great romancers like Sophocles, Shakespeare, Scott, and Hugo make good their right to be called masters.

What is probably the best test of strength? We should say that it is the successful en-

durance of every possible strain for the longest period of time. Measured by this standard the products of realism are not strong; they have not resisted the attacks of time. A certain kind of sensationalism has overcome the centuries. Homer's epics are notable examples in point, and we might add almost every enduring fiction in the world's literature.

We would not be understood as defending vulgar and enervating sensational fiction; we condemn it outright; but we do say that without the lift of extraordinary scenes and high views of life, without noble ambitions and lofty ideals strongly set over against their moral opposites there can be no immortal art in fiction. Every thoughtful critic must be able to draw the line between a "dime-dreadful" bit of sensational trash and a true romance which deals with human nature as it really is, but in its most interesting, instructive, and thrilling moods. It is not murder, or arson, or intrigue that must be chosen as the highest and most noteworthy evidences of romance; rather let us take grand or difficult or singularly exceptional moral combinations. Dickens in his "Tale of Two Cities" touched dangerously near the sentimentally sensational; so did George Eliot in "Romola"; both of these romances are saved by the moral lift that is in them, if they are saved at all.

We might well take the "dime-dreadful" as a fine illustration of the power of romance. When the boy reads one of these, buys him a pistol and runs away from school thinking to go west and become a robber, he is the antitype of the boy who is urged to superb manliness, courage, and honor by reading the better examples of romance. It is because romance has this molding and controlling influence over the young mind that it ought to be pure, encouraging, lifting, ennobling, and not a mere reflection of the average frailties and sins of commonplace life. True romance is not "sensational," but it is full of moving qualities, each of which furnishes a fine and healthy sensation.

A STUDY OF THE RECENT ELECTIONS.

In estimating the results of a change in the political color of a government, it always is wise to search closely for the causes which led to the substitution of one party for an-

other. Nowhere is this more true than in the United States, for the presidential electors of each state, except Michigan, are elected in a body, and, with very few exceptions, at a time when state and local officers are to be selected, the situation being farther complicated by local questions which have no direct bearing on national affairs. Only an unreasoning partisan of the victorious party will ever claim that the political see-saw of the last three presidential elections was due to some thousands of men suddenly changing from one party to another. Many men temporarily vote contrary to their old affiliations, yet insist that they belong to the party against whose candidates they cast their ballots.

During the recent November election, for instance, the passing of two large western states from the Republican to the Democratic column was largely brought about by protests of newly made citizens, of foreign birth, against school laws of Republican origin. California's large Democratic majority may be attributed to jealousy of the rich landed and corporation element, which in that state chances to consist largely of Republicans. Classes have changed rapidly and suddenly in some states, and in some, where the manufacturing interests have increased immensely, with the result of adding to the population many thousands of men who work for wages and are easily affected to discontent; there was a deluge of anti-tariff circulars, etc., which could not help having influence when unopposed by a similar flood from the other political shore. It is urged in some quarters as a reason for the general change that wage-earners thought they did not receive their share of protection in wages, and that this complaint was potential among voters connected with labor organizations; if this be true, it now remains to be seen what effect will be wrought on wages by the change. Aside from the merits or faults of either side of the tariff controversy, it is undeniable that the general subject, like any other which is above popular comprehension, will from time to time be decided by comparative mass of argument, and that in the last campaign the Democrats gave it, in print, almost their entire attention.

The working of the new ballot law, modeled more or less after the Australian method, made additional complications for both of the

great parties. Some men of high principle resented them, on the theory that a secret ballot was wrong; some men of no principle complained, generally to their own kind, that they could not sell their votes because under the new system they could not prove delivery. There was much staying away from the polls for both reasons named, and by members of both parties; others remained at home through indignation at the implied supposition that their votes needed to be guarded from the general notice. Inability to personally distribute party tickets, with appropriate exhortations, took the spirit out of many honest party "workers" too old cheerfully to abandon old ways. Undoubtedly the ballot methods of some states will be revised, by agreement of all parties.

The fusion movement in some states upset many well-laid plans, and in a struggle in which the contending forces were as evenly balanced as in '84 and '88 it would have accomplished its purpose, which was to throw the election of president into the House of Representatives.

It must be said that the "new party" disappointed its own members, except to the extent of increasing its representation in Congress. Had the election been held a year earlier the "Populists" would probably have carried several states; they made the mistake however—a very serious mistake, too, in politics—of asking too much at the beginning. However fair some of its purposes may have been, however much its members felt themselves oppressed and neglected, it was a fatal error to make demands on the method of a client's attorney, who asks everything so that he may be able to drop largely when the time comes to settle his case by compromise. No other party or faction ever got so much sympathy or so few votes from the community, aside from its own members; this is the more regrettable because there really is much class legislation, thinly disguised, in the United States, and so long as it exists the entire agricultural class have the right to participate in its benefits. Before another campaign begins the members of the new party should have learned much through the wonderings which always follow defeat; it will either come before the public with requests too modest to frighten any one, or it will have so formulated its demands as to be taken bodily into one of the other parties.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

THE opinions expressed by Mr. Powderly, the executive head of the Knights of Labor, at the recent session of the general assembly of that organization are worthy of consideration chiefly because they reflect the views of a growing percentage of the organized labor of the country. In his opening address Mr. Powderly declared the need of labor to be a thorough and complete organization of all trades into one representative body. Accompanying the concentration of capital in all pursuits, the cause of labor, according to Mr. Powderly, is continually being weakened by the increase in the number of labor organizations representing different branches and trades thus tending to a division and possibly ultimate dissolution. The tremendous power which would result from a complete federation of labor is obvious, but it is notably true that neither the Knights of Labor nor any other single organization have up to this time done more than point out the need for such action.

THE recent report of the adjutant general of the U. S. Army shows a marked decrease in the number of desertions. In 1888-89 the number was 2,344; in 1890-91 it was 1,503; and in 1891-92, 1,382, or a fraction over five per cent of the total number enlisted. The effect of the wholesome legislation passed by the national Congress within a few years is plainly seen in the present *morale* of the army and the decrease in the number of desertions. In the opinion of the adjutant general, the army, composed of 26,900 officers and men, compares favorably with an equal number of men of the same class in civil life in point of intelligence, sobriety, and faithfulness.

THE Homestead strike has reached the end and nearly two thousand men were idle on Thanksgiving day and without prospects of immediate employment. The strike was one of the most notable in the history of the labor movement in this country. In every stage of the conflict the fact was demonstrated that capital can afford to lose day after day while labor goes begging, and doubtless if the affair were to be repeated on the same ground the increased wisdom of labor would

call for a revision of its policy and methods in many respects. The culmination of the strike has witnessed the almost utter collapse of the organization of labor in the iron and steel industry, at least in that particular locality. The outcome was not a triumph for capital, neither was it a signal defeat for labor. The remedy for such conflicts in the future will not be found in the arguments of professional agitators who figure in every industrial dispute nor in the aggrieved utterances of defensive or aggressive capital. The sober sense of the American people sitting in judgment on each successive strike will ultimately make like contests an impossibility and provide for a guarantee of distributive justice equally to all classes.

WITH the close of the first sessions of the International Monetary Conference all hope of any agreement being reached by the delegates as to a reliable and available standard of values passed away. The obstruction tactics of the representatives of the English government and their attitude on questions submitted for discussion demonstrated, if any such thing were needed, what had already been announced, that the conference was regarded by the English government as being a deliberative body which convened for the exercise of mere perfunctory powers. Thus hampered at the outset the conference began its work with good prospects of marked success in point of discussion and an international exchange of views. There is little reason, however, to hope for any result which shall be binding upon any government represented.

THE Pinkerton detective agency began to furnish men in strike difficulties twenty-six years ago, since which time men employed by the concern have figured in seventy strikes. This is substantially the testimony given by Mr. Robert A. Pinkerton before the Senate subcommittee at its final session in New York. Men were furnished the New York Central Railroad during the strike at Buffalo in the summer, and three hundred Pinkerton men were sent to Homestead upon the order of the Carnegie Company. It has never been definitely known until now just what relations the Pinkerton men have sustained to

the corporations in the labor disturbances of the country and the facts brought out by the government investigation will aid very materially in guiding the public to a safe judgment. If the safety of the republic demands increased protection to the rights of citizens, without reference to their class, and the present powers of the state or federal governments are so restricted that they cannot furnish such protection, it is time that our laws be readjusted so that the functions of the government may be carried out as intended by the Constitution. All good citizens will respect the right of the state to enforce its laws but they will question the enforcement of public law by private authority even in instances of last resort. It is not too much to expect the government to fulfill its functions, and when this becomes true to the letter, Pinkertonism will be abolished.

THE report has gone out that all offers and promises of floor space for the Educational Exhibit at the Columbian Exposition are to be withdrawn, notwithstanding the fact that invitations have been issued to all the states to prepare educational exhibits and the preliminary arrangements made for a building for the exhibit containing 200,000 feet of floor space. The building contemplated for the educational exhibit could surely be erected without prejudice to any other interest not now provided for and it would be a deplorable fact if the management of the Fair should neglect to make provision for the interests of education, one of the greatest in our national life. Despite the reports, which are authentic so far as the consideration of the plan goes, it would be a blunder such as one could not credit to a management possessed of any appreciable degree of wisdom.

It will not be long until the Library of the United States, or, as it is more generally known, the Congressional Library, will rival those of the foremost nations of the world. The library at present contains 650,000 volumes, 250,000 pamphlets, and more than 10,000 maps. A large percentage of the books appertain to law and legislation, history, political science, finance, and sociology. The new library building as planned will cover about three hundred acres of ground, its cost will be in the neighborhood of six millions of dollars, and the materials used in its construction will be granite, iron, marble, and brick, which will make it a practically

fireproof structure. The new building will accommodate nearly five million volumes, more than double the number now contained in the library of the French government in Paris, which to-day is the largest library in the world. The benefits to be derived from such an institution are incalculable and the extensions already provided for by the government are evidences of real American progress.

SOME knowledge as to the originator of any public movement is always of interest. Two years ago Mr. James B. Upham of Boston conceived the idea of organizing in every locality a public school celebration for Columbus Day. His thought was not long in finding expression in practical form. The first step in the patriotic work was the raising of the national flag over all the school houses; and this was quickly followed by the organization of the Lyceum League of America, having for its object the training of young men for the duties of citizenship,—the forerunner of the Patriotic League now promising to gain rapid foothold in all institutions of learning. As the immediate result of these brilliant conceptions the first day of the fifth century of American life witnessed the great popular demonstration in which the public schools in all parts of the country—the institutions nearest to the heart of the people—were the center of all observance. One permanent result of the movement will be, that having made educators more conscious of their higher duties in this regard, they will by their better teaching exert a wide influence in molding future thought.

KEEN insight and wisdom were shown in Miss Willard's answer to the question lately urged from many quarters, "Why do not women open their great and successful societies to men?" No better place and time could have been chosen for giving such a reply, than at the large and impressive gathering at the opening of the Nineteenth Annual Convention of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, held in Denver a few weeks ago. The occasion furnished at once a most appropriate setting and a most convincing proof of the words spoken by the president of this great organization in her opening address:

"These organized movements are, as we think, God's great recruiting stations for the new war in which He is enrolling, drilling, and disciplining. If men were at the front in these so-

cieties, as they would necessarily be if there at all, women would not develop so rapidly, or become so self-respecting and individual in character; they need to learn how to use the weapons with which the future is certain to equip them."

WYOMING has waited long for a single follower in her advance movement granting full suffrage to women. Since 1869 she has been proudly setting the example in this line before the world. And now from far across the waters of the Pacific she hears the news that New Zealand has also adopted the plan, and henceforth will count as citizens *all* the members of her commonwealth. A significant parallel in the two cases lies in the fact that Wyoming was one of the remote territories of the United States when she adopted the movement, and that New Zealand is one of the far-away colonies of England. Both give evidence of the fact that the push, the quicker impulses, the keener sympathies of young governments dare and accomplish deeds which the staid conservatism of older states fears "to put to the touch."

THAT is a sad comment on compulsory education laws which comes in the news that there are 40,000 little children in London who go breakfastless to school every morning. It shows with peculiar force the growing importance of the social problem which to-day agitates the public mind the world over. The matter has been brought to the attention of the school authorities in London by the representatives of the idle workingmen, and it has been unofficially proposed that a wholesome porridge be provided, the cost of which it is said would not exceed a half-penny for each child. Any compulsory education law that might be enacted would be of little or no value unless the physical condition of those whom it was calculated to reach became as much a matter of concern as education itself. No good government could afford for a moment to neglect such a condition and it is not to be supposed that the municipal government of the English metropolis will be long in finding a remedy.

A COMMENDABLE movement is that recently made by the French Academy of Science to present to M. Louis Pasteur some fitting testimonial on the occasion of his seventieth birthday, which occurs on December 27. That the funds for carrying out such an arrangement are to be raised by international subscription is also a matter for congratula-

tion, for the discoveries of the great scientist have benefited all nations and deserve special recognition on the part of all. From the reports of the various industrial arts it is shown that the application of his discoveries has been of incalculable value. He has almost destroyed the pest of the silkworm trade, has gained the mastery over splenic fever, and now bids fair to have in hand the control of that terrible disease, hydrophobia. These with his many researches into other lines, make all mankind in large degree his debtors; and these debtors will gladly join hands in paying tribute to this remarkable man.

THE development of the Panama Canal scandal in France will throw a new light on many of the methods employed in the conduct of modern administrative government. Evidences of wholesale corruption are plentiful on every hand and the disgrace appears to have penetrated every department of the government. Many members of the *Corps Legislatif*, particularly those forming the important committees, are said to have bartered away their influence for various considerations. It is to be hoped that the official investigation will be so effective that the disgrace of public officials and the present government generally will not bear repetition while the republic lasts. The venerable M. de Lesseps will figure prominently in the proceedings; should he become implicated in the scandal, as now seems probable, and his disgrace follow as a consequence, it will be a pitiable sacrifice of an illustrious citizen.

THAT the Salvation Army, which has marched so bravely forward from the beginning in spite of public derision, is on the winning side, was clearly proved by the public favor bestowed upon it at its Continental Congress held in New York City in November. On that occasion only a few scattering loungers about street corners jeered as the large parade passed by; respectful attention was given by all thoughtful persons. The press devoted large space to kindly comments on the proceedings of the convention. The three thousand delegates were gathered from all parts of the United States, a fact most effectively showing the growth and development of the organization. During the sessions its soldiers—earnest men and women—were busy about their Master's business, reporting prog-

ress already made and seeking out new measures by which they might better accomplish their aim. That they have made life happier for thousands of the wretched, as their history shows, is a result which so far overtops the offense which their peculiar methods may have caused more decorous people, as to make it sink out of sight, and to bespeak for them in the future the sympathy and good will of all. A touching and significant incident of the congress was the dedication of the infant daughter of Commander and Mrs. Ballington Booth to the work of the Salvation Army.

THE death of Mr. Jay Gould was unexpected to his business associates and the general public; it came without any previous long sickness though it is announced that he died of consumption. He had employed Dr. Munn, an eminent physician, for several years to be his constant companion. In his home, in his business office, in his travels, everywhere Dr. Munn was at his side to guard his health and give him counsel as to diet, effects of climate, etc. Yet death came and Mr. Gould has his release. It is reported that he was worth \$100,000,000 invested mainly in Western Union, Manhattan stock, and the Missouri Pacific. He has made a provision in his will that will keep his estate intact for a number of years. He left four sons and two daughters, the oldest of whom, George Gould, will be prominent in the management of the estate. He began life as a poor boy and of his vast wealth it is said not one dollar is from inheritance.

THE opening of the new home of art on Fifty-seventh St., near Eighth Ave., in New York City, December 3, was honored by the presence of four thousand guests, among whom were many noted persons. The building designed by H. J. Hardenbergh of the Architectural League, has a frontage of 75 ft. on Fifty-seventh St., extending back 143 ft., and the society has the privilege of buying the property adjoining at the rear. The structure is itself a work of art impressively beautiful and convenient for its purpose. It includes elegant club rooms, a large modeling room, studios for all the different classes, and of greatest interest to the general public—for whose comfort be it said they are only one story high—five spacious exhibition galleries, graduated in size to suit the different collections. This art home is the outcome of the organization for co-operation into a stock

company known as the American Fine Arts Society, of the Society of American Arts, the Architectural League of New York, and the Art Students' League of New York. Each before had been influential as a separate power, and by their alliance they furnish the greatest impulse to American art that this country has ever known. Already six hundred pupils are at work and many are waiting to be admitted.

IN the second annual report of the Relief Association of Oil City, Pa., prepared by its president, Mr. George P. Hukill, there is to be found a creditable model for the conducting of such a society. Finely organized and in readiness for action, when on that terrible Sunday of June 5, 1892, the flood and fire swept down over Oil City and Titusville its members were at once busy in the field caring for the suffering and devising means of relief for those left destitute. Without the coming of this swift aid the loss of life and the destruction of property would have been far greater. Full and clear reports of all the able measures taken by the association during this crucial time and accounts of all the money and supplies received and disbursed, are given. It is shown that in several instances, persons having lost their all were made self-supporting again within a few days. Stronger comment than these facts on the benefit of such associations would be impossible.

SCARCELY a month after the sad death of Mrs. Harrison, her venerable father, the Rev. Dr. Scott, breathed his last at the White House, having reached the ripe age of ninety-three years. A graduate of Washington College, a post graduate of Yale, he was a man of high attainments. As professor in Washington College and later in Miami University, and as founder and president of Oxford Female College in Ohio, he made his influence felt upon his times. In his later years he received an appointment as clerk in the Department of the Interior in Washington, D. C., which position he was holding when President Harrison took up his residence in the Executive Mansion. He was then persuaded to resign his clerkship and make his home with the president and his wife. The uniform kindness and attention received and returned by him, made his last days beautiful for himself and for all around him.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR JANUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending January 9).

"Grecian History." Chapter XII. to last paragraph on page 206.

"The United States and Foreign Powers." Chapter XXI.

"Callias." Chapters XII, XIII, and XIV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The American School at Athens."

"Our Government Exhibit at the World's Fair."

Sunday Reading for January 1.

Second week (ending January 17).

"Grecian History." From page 206 to end of Chapter XII.

"The United States and Foreign Powers." Chapter XXII.

"Callias." Chapters XV. and XVI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Economic Revolution."

"Women in Greek History."

Sunday Reading for January 8.

Third week (ending January 24).

"Grecian History." Chapter XIII.

"Callias." Chapters XVII, XVIII, and XIX.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Telepathy."

"Greek Papyri."

Sunday Reading for January 15.

Fourth week (ending January 31).

"Grecian History." Chapter XIV.

"Callias." Chapters XX. and XXI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Coal Industry."

Sunday Reading for January 22 and 29.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations on the New Year.
2. Reading—"The New Year."*
3. Paper—The siege and destruction of Plataea. (See full accounts in Thucydides and in the larger histories of Greece.)
4. A résumé of the leading events in the United States and in Greece during the past year.
5. Debate—Question: Does the United States need a navy?

*See *The Library Table*, page 504.

PERICLES DAY—JANUARY 17.

1. Table-Talk—The life and character of Pericles.
2. Paper—The Athens of Pericles. As far as possible let this be in the form of an illustrated lecture; have a chart of the city—especially of the Acropolis—and as many pictures of the various buildings as can be obtained. It would be a good idea to have this exercise given by some Greek professor or specialist.
3. Paper—Causes of the destruction of the Acropolis.
4. Reading—"In Ruins."*
5. A picture gallery—Let there be collected as many pictures as possible illustrating Greek art. These may be arranged on the walls or grouped on the table. As they are displayed they are to be freely discussed.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Table Talk—The news of the day.
2. Character sketch—Alcibiades.
3. Reading—"The Freebooters."*
4. Contest—A series of review questions on "The United States and Foreign Powers" made out on the diplomatic relations of the United States with Great Britain, France, Spain, Russia, and Germany. The circle is to be divided into two equal parts, and six questions are to be asked on each country. The side answering the greatest number correctly is the winner.
5. Questions from *The Question Table*.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. *Questions and Answers* in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
2. Contest—Review questions on diplomatic relations of the United States with the Barbary States, China, Japan, Samoa, and the Congo State.
3. Reading—"The Chariot of the Soul."*
4. Paper—The Peloponnesian War: its causes, summary of its events, its results.
5. Debate—Resolved: That convict mining should be prohibited by law.

A New Year reception would afford a fine entertainment for all circles. This custom which is rapidly declining is too good a one willingly

*See *The Library Table*, page 504.

to let die out. Quite an elaborate entertainment can be prepared, if desired, something as follows: As it is the American-Greek year, the two civilizations may be represented. For this purpose double parlors would be preferable, though one large room could be made to serve the purpose by having the two "nations" in different parts of it. The Greek reception party would need to dress in Greek costume. The hair should be worn in a Greek knot, and rolled back from the face, with one or more

bands around the head; the dress may be simulated by some light drapery worn over the ordinary clothing. If one has not at hand any better model to follow, an approximate idea may be obtained from some of the cuts in "Greek Architecture and Sculpture," see page 88. The room should be furnished with divans on which the guests can recline while partaking of the refreshments, which should consist of sweetmeats, fruit, and small cakes, served in tiny baskets, and coffee.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR JANUARY.

"GRECIAN HISTORY."

P. 198. *Hetærae* [he-te're].

P. 202. "Outer Ceramicus." See text-book, page 192. Thucydides thus describes this public burial: "They lay out the bones of the slain three days previously in a tent erected for the purpose, and each family bring for their own dead any offering they please. When the time comes for carrying them forth to burial, sarcophagi made of cypress wood are placed on cars, one for each tribe; in these are laid the bones of each man, according to the tribe to which he belonged; and one bier is carried empty, spread with funeral garments, for the missing, whose bones could not be collected to be brought home. Any one who will, citizen or sojourner, joins in the procession; and the women of the family are present at the funeral, to make lament for the dead. So they lay them in the public cemetery, which is in the fairest suburb of the city; and there do they always bury those who fall in battle, excepting those who died at Marathon—those heroes they buried where they fell, as judging their valor to have been exceptional. And, when they lay them in the ground, some citizen selected by the state . . . pronounces over them a fitting panegyric, after which they all withdraw."

P. 206. *Paches* [pa'kēs].

P. 207. *Cor-y-pha'si-on*.—*Sphac-te'ri-a*.

P. 216. "Al-ci-bi'a-des as master of the revels." Plutarch tells the following story of this famous Greek: Once as he "played at dice in the street, being then but a child, a loaded cart came that way, when it was his turn to throw; at first he called to the driver to stop because he was to throw in the way over which the cart was to pass; but the man giving him no attention and driving on, when the rest of the boys divided and gave way, Alcibiades threw

himself on his face before the cart, and stretching himself out, bade the carter pass on now if he would; which so startled the man that he put back his horses, while all that saw it were terrified, and, crying out, ran to the assistance of Alcibiades."

P. 217. *Hy-per'bo-lus*.

P. 219. "Au-ton'o-my." The power or right of self-government; the political independence of a city or state.

Si-cel'i-ots.—*Egesta* [e-jes'ta].

P. 221. "Hermæ." "These Hermæ, or half statues of the god Hermes [Mercury], were blocks of marble about the height of the human figure. The upper part was cut into a head, face, neck, and bust; the lower part was left as a quadrangular pillar, broad at the base, without arms, body, or legs. . . . They were distributed in great numbers throughout Athens, and always in the most conspicuous situations; standing beside the outer doors of private houses as well as of temples, near the most frequented porticos, at the intersection of cross ways, in the public agora. They were thus present to the eye of every Athenian in all his acts of communication, either for business or pleasure, with his fellow-citizens. The religious feelings of the Greeks considered the god to be planted or domiciliated where his statue stood, so that the companionship, sympathy, and guardianship of Hermes became associated with most of the manifestations of conjunct life at Athens,—political, social, commercial, or gymnastic. Moreover, the quadrangular fashion of these statues, employed occasionally for other gods besides Hermes, was a most ancient relic handed down from the primitive rudeness of Pelasgian workmanship and was popular in Arcadia as well as peculiarly frequent in Athens."—*Grote*.

"El-eu-sin'i-a." "Mysteries of Ceres [see

text-book, page 67] and Proserpine held at Eleusis. Neither the founder of these mysteries nor the time of their origin is known; they were the oldest and most venerated in Greece. Originally they were a public festival, a harvest home to express the gratitude of men to Ceres for her bounties; to recall their former condition and enjoy their present blessings; to banish unkind feelings and perhaps, also, to form new laws and project new enterprises."

P. 227. Gy-lip'pus.

P. 232. "The last great sea-fight in the harbor of Syracuse." The battle of Syracuse is ranked as one of the decisive battlefields of the world. Creasy says, "All danger from Athens to the independent nations of the West was now forever at an end. . . . No success in subsequent conquests could ever have restored her to the pre-eminence in enterprise, resources, and maritime skill which she had acquired before her fatal reverses in Sicily. . . . The dominion of Western Europe was left for Rome and Carthage to dispute two centuries later, in conflicts still more terrible and with even higher displays of military daring and genius than Athens had witnessed either in her rise, her meridian, or her fall." Arnold says, "The Romans knew not and could not know how deeply the greatness of their own prosperity and the fate of the whole western world were involved in the destruction of the fleet of Athens in the harbor of Syracuse. Had that great expedition proved victorious the energies of Greece during the next eventful century would have found their field in the West no less than in the East. Greece and not Rome might have conquered Carthage; Greek and not Latin might have been at this day the principal element of the language of Spain, of France, and of Italy; and the laws of Athens rather than of Rome might be the foundation of the law of the civilized world."

P. 236. Decelea [des-e-le'a].—Phar-na-ba'-zus.—Tis-sa-pher'nes.

P. 237. "The emergency fund." See text-book, page 202. "By a unanimous vote, the penalty of death which forbade the appropriation of this sum to any other purpose was abolished."

"Rhodes." This island which was destitute of fortifications had been "partly persuaded, partly frightened, into the step of revolting from Athens and allying [itself] with the Peloponnesians." The latter then levied from the Rhodians a heavy contribution and took the island as the headquarters of their fleet. An interesting bit of tradition connected with this revolt is related in the "Classic Greek Course in English," page 247.

P. 238. Thra-syl'lus.—Thras-y-bu'lus.

P. 239. The-ram'e-nes.—An'ti-phon.

P. 241. An-ti'o-chus.—Cal-li-crat'i-das.

P. 242. Ar-gi-nu'sæ.

P. 243. Æ-gos-pot'a-mi.

"THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN POWERS."

P. 283. An error at the opening of Chapter XXI. locates Korea in the *northwestern* part of Asia instead of in the *eastern* part.

"Robbing the tombs." "It was believed in China that the royal coffins in the tombs of Ping-an, wherein more than one dynasty of Chō-sen lay buried, were of solid gold; and it was broadly hinted that the expedition had something to do with these."—*William Elliot Griffiths*.

P. 284. "The attack on the *Sherman*." "A broad streak of light was thrown upon at least one possible cause of the *Sherman* tragedy, by the statement of the natives that Chinese pirates frequently descend on the coast and kill and rob the Koreans. During the previous years, several natives had been killed by Chinese pirates near the Wachusett's anchorage. As ten of the crew of the *Sherman* were Canton Chinamen, it is probable that the very sight of them on an armed vessel would inflame the Koreans to take their long waited-for revenge."

P. 287. "Ports of Korea opened to Japan." This took place in 1876. The first Korean embassy which since the twelfth century had been accredited to Japan sailed in May of this year, from Fusan in a Japanese steamer, landed at Yokohama and took the cars for Tokio. They were welcomed with great ceremony. "At the station the contrast between the old and the new was startling. The Japanese stood with all the outward signs of the *civilization* that is coming in. On the other side were all the representatives of the *barbarism* that is going out."

P. 293. "Ambiguons." The word has an interesting derivation. The Latin *ambi* means around; the verb *agere*, to drive, to move. Hence, from the mental picture of seeing one driving around aimlessly, the two expressions compounded and transplanted into English, give a word having the signification of doubtful, of uncertain nature; wavering, hesitating.

"Grotesque." Like grotto-work; of the fantastic character of grotto-work and its decoration; of irregular forms, as the style of ornamentation known as the arabesque, in which figures imitating the human form to the waist end in scrolls, leafage, and the like, and are linked with animal forms and impossible flowers. Hence, whimsical, absurd.

P. 297. "The inhuman traffic in slaves was

at an end." This means as far as any of the European powers are concerned. "As slavery is the custom of Africa, there is often no other labor to be had, as the English and Germans have discovered in their attempts to exploit the east-coast region. Whatever abuses are practised by individuals, the system countenanced by the authorities is that followed also in British East Africa, of hiringslaves for fixed terms from their masters and allowing them wages to be applied to buying their freedom. Slave raids are checked wherever the authority of the Congo State is exercised. . . . Lieut. Deschamps meeting a band of 7,000 slaves on the River Sankuru, put them to flight with 200 trained native soldiers, and released 1,000 slaves. . . . In the early summer in 1891, an Arab slave convoy was defeated between the Aruwimi and the Welle, and 2,000 slaves were set free. Captain Ponthies [in this same year] led an expedition to the upper Himbiri Roubi with the object of proceeding thence to the northward, and erecting a line of fortified camps as a bulwark against Arab slave traders."

P. 302. "Buccaneers." French settlers in Hayti and Tortugas, whose occupation was to hunt wild cattle and hogs and cure their flesh. The word is derived from the French *boucaner*, to hunt wild beasts for their skins. Then the name came to be applied to the French who combined to make depredations on the Spaniards who had invaded the islands and driven the Frenchmen from their business of buccaneering. Applied now to all piratical adventurers, to freebooters.

"Captain Cook." (1728-1779.) An English navigator, who, it will be remembered, discovered the Sandwich Islands in 1778. Returning to the islands in the following year, he became involved in trouble with the king and in a skirmish was killed.

"CALLIAS."

P. 108. "Alcibiades' castle in Thrace." See text-book on "Grecian History," page 241, where it is stated that Alcibiades retired to his castle on the north shore of the Hellespont. See map. Plutarch says of Alcibiades just before this time, "It was also objected to him that he had fortified a castle near Bisanthe in Thrace, for a safe retreat for himself, as one that either could not or would not live in his own country. The Athenians gave credit to these informations and showed the resentment and displeasure which they had conceived against him by choosing other generals [the ten tribal generals]. As soon as Alcibiades heard of this, he immediately forsook the army, afraid of what might

follow; and collecting a body of mercenary soldiers, made war upon his own account against those Thracians who called themselves free and acknowledged no king. By this means he amassed to himself a considerable treasure."

P. 109. Sam'o-thrace.

P. 112. "Clepsydra." A derivative compounded of two Greek words, meaning to steal, and water. It measured time by allowing water to escape from a small orifice. "The simplest kind consisted of a transparent vase filled with water, graduated, and having a small opening in the bottom. As the liquid gradually escaped, its height in the vase marked the hour. . . . At the beginning of the ninth century, Charlemagne received a magnificent clepsydra from the caliph Haroun-al-Raschid. . . . Clepsydres are frequently referred to in [ancient] writings, like the sands of the hourglass in modern literature."

Bi-san'the.

P. 116. "The duel between Ajax and Hector." See "Classic Greek Course in English," page 82.

Pol-yg-no'tus.

P. 118. "Pot-i-dæ'a." See "Grecian History," pages 195 and 196.

P. 122. Sen'thes.

P. 142. Pa-sar'ga-dæ.—San-ga'ri-us.

P. 143. "Broached." Tapped, pierced.

Tmolus [mo'lus].

P. 144. "Sumpter-horses." Pack-horses.

P. 148. Timagenes [ti-maj'e-nes].

P. 150. Archestratus [ar-kes'tra-tus].

P. 154. Sel-la'si-a.

P. 156. "Repertoire" [rep'er-twâr]. A list of dramas, operas, pieces, parts, etc., which a company or person has practiced and is ready to give.

Gy-the'um.

P. 157. "Noblesse oblige." A French quotation, which, rendered in English, means, "The fact of being a noble creates obligations." Matthew Arnold says, "To feel itself raised on high, venerated, followed, no doubt stimulates a fine nature to keep itself worthy to be followed, venerated, raised on high; hence that lofty maxim, noblesse oblige."

P. 160. "Pryt-a-ne'um." "A public hall, typifying the common ritual or official hearth of the community."

P. 180. Ac'ra-gas.—Him'e-ra.

P. 181. "Di-o-nys'i-us." The Elder, tyrant of Syracuse. He began life as a clerk in a public office. Prompted by ambition and possessing talent, he gradually raised himself to distinction; and in B. C. 405, though only twenty-five years of age, he was appointed sole general of

Syracuse with full powers. From this period we may date the commencement of his reign which continued without interruption for thirty-eight years. . . During the last twenty years of his life he possessed an amount of power and influence far exceeding that of any other Greek before the time of Alexander. His character is drawn in the blackest colors by many ancient writers. . . He was himself a poet and repeatedly contended for the prize of tragedy at Athens."—*Smith*.

P. 185. "Gor'gi-as." A celebrated rhetorician and sophist.

P. 187. "*Belles-lettres*" [bel-let'r]. French for fine letters. A word applied somewhat in-

definitely to poetry, fiction, and other imaginative literature, and also to literary studies and criticisms.

Dem-o-ce'des.

P. 191. Thap'sa-cus.

P. 192. "Cuirasses" [kwe-rass'es]. Pieces of defensive armor covering the body from the neck to the waist.

"Cuisses" [kwis'es]. Written more commonly, cuishes [kwish'es]. Defensive armor for the thighs.

"Scythe-armed chariots." These famous chariots were made with spokes which bore long hooks and sickles, and were chiefly used by the ancient Persians, Bretons, and Gauls.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"GRECIAN HISTORY."

1. Q. Name the real cause of the Peloponnesian War. A. Jealousy on the part of Sparta and her allies, of the triumphant democracy of Athens.

2. Q. What were the immediate causes of the war? A. Many special grievances of the different states against Athens.

3. Q. In what rebellion was a pretense for opening the war found? A. That of Corcyra against its mother city, Corinth.

4. Q. What trouble existed at this time within Athens? A. The aristocratic party hated Pericles and strenuously opposed his government.

5. Q. Through the persecution of what personal friends did the aristocrats rain blows upon Pericles? A. Phidias, Anaxagoras, and Aspasia.

6. Q. An outbreak occurred between what two cities before the formal declaration of war was made? A. Platæa and Thebes.

7. Q. What were the resources of Athens at the beginning of the war? A. She possessed only Attica on the mainland, but was mistress of a maritime empire comprising most of the Ægean coast and islands.

8. Q. Of what did Sparta's equipments consist? A. As the leader of the Peloponnesian confederacy she was rich in men, but poor in money and ships.

9. Q. What tactics did Pericles pursue at the beginning of the war? A. Gathering the whole population of Attica within the walls of Athens, he allowed the enemy unmolested to devastate the surrounding country.

10. Q. What aggressive measures did Peri-

cles undertake? A. He dispatched a fleet to harry the Peloponnesian coast.

11. Q. What disaster overwhelmed the Athenians in the second year of the war? A. They were smitten with the pestilence which swept away one fourth of the population, Pericles himself being among the number.

12. Q. When did Athens gain control of the Corinthian gulf? A. In the third year of the war, 429 B. C.

13. Q. What signal victory did Athens gain in the seventh year? A. The naval battle at Sphacteria.

14. Q. What most effective measure against Athens did the Spartan general, Brasidas, put in operation? A. Leading an army northward overland to the rich tribute cities of Athens, he won their allegiance to Sparta, and so cut off Athens' streams of tribute money.

15. Q. When was the first treaty of peace signed? A. In 421, ten years after the war opened.

16. Q. Through the machinations of what leader did Athens enter upon warlike measures a year after signing the peace of Nicias? A. Alcibiades.

17. Q. What victory in 418 B. C. made Sparta stronger than ever? A. That gained at Mantinea.

18. Q. When did the power of Athens now begin to decline? A. From the time of the high-handed outrage she perpetrated upon the Melians.

19. Q. What event brought about this decline? A. The intervention of the Athenians in the affairs of Sicily.

20. Q. How came Athens to undertake the fatal Sicilian expedition? A. She hoped to insure her own future by aiding the city Eggesta in its strife with Selinus and Syracuse.
 21. Q. What diverted Alcibiades from his proposed part in this expedition? A. Called home for trial for destruction of the sacred Hermae, he escaped and deserted to the Spartans.
 22. Q. Under the direction of what Athenian generals did the expedition then fall? A. Nicias and Lamachus, and later, Demosthenes.
 23. Q. What was the final result of the attempt on Syracuse? A. The utter annihilation of the Athenian forces.
 24. Q. What marked the reopening of hostilities after this blow which prostrated the resources of Athens? A. The depredations of an Athenian fleet on the Peloponnesian coast.
 25. Q. Where did Athens find means for reinforcing her fleet for this third period of the war? A. By using for it the emergency fund of 1,000 talents set apart by Pericles.
 26. Q. From what place as a naval station did Athens wage constant war against Sparta? A. The island of Samos.
 27. Q. How did Alcibiades find opportunity to reinstate himself in Athens? A. By persuading the oligarchic party in Samos of his power to win Persia as a friend for Athens.
 28. Q. What inhuman action followed the Athenian victory at Arginusæ? A. The condemning to death of six of the ten generals who were appointed to succeed the traitor Alcibiades.
 29. Q. What proved the crowning disaster of the war to the Athenians? A. Their defeat at Ægospotami.
 30. Q. What fear of the Athenians now proved groundless? A. That at the close of this twenty-seven years' war their city would be wiped out as they had swept away other cities.
- "THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN POWERS."
1. Q. When did the United States first attempt relations with Korea? A. In 1868.
 2. Q. To what was this attempt due? A. To a series of circumstances growing out of an effort on the part of an American to rob Korean royal tombs.
 3. Q. From which side did the proposal of a treaty of friendship and commerce come? A. From the Koreans.
 4. Q. How did the first expedition of the Americans to Korea end? A. In failure, after it had met with a hostile attack.
 5. Q. With what country did the Koreans first make a treaty of peace? A. Japan.
 6. Q. When and with whom was their second treaty made? A. In 1883 with the United States.
 7. Q. What concession did Samoa readily make to the United States in 1872? A. The harbor of Pango-Pango was given as a port of refuge and coaling station.
 8. Q. Why did the people of Samoa wish to place themselves under the authority of the United States? A. They were wearied of civil warfare and thought by this means to put an end to their troubles.
 9. Q. With what European nation did Samoan affairs nearly plunge the United States into war? A. Germany.
 10. Q. Why did the Americans seek treaty relations with Siam? A. To protect their sea men and to extend their commerce.
 11. Q. When was the Congo Free State constituted? A. In 1885.
 12. Q. Why did Bismarck so eagerly urge the creating of this new state? A. By making it a foreign market for German manufactures, he hoped to furnish employment to keep Germans from emigrating.
 13. Q. Who constituted the first Protestant mission to Hawaii? A. Seven American families and three natives who sailed for the islands in 1819.
 14. Q. What were the terms of the treaty adopted by the leading powers in 1843 regarding Hawaii? A. It was recognized as an independent sovereignty.
 15. Q. What is true of American influences in those islands? A. They are so in the ascendant that the country in all but government is under the control of the United States.
- "CALLIAS."
1. Q. Where did the hero of the story find a refuge after his friends kidnaped him to save him? A. In the castle of Alcibiades in Thrace.
 2. Q. Why were the Greek cities along the Propontis friendly to Alcibiades in this retreat? A. They had previously been harassed by the robber bands of the free Thracians, but Alcibiades held the latter in check, repaying them in their own coin.
 3. Q. What insight into Thracian social customs is given? A. The wedding festivities of a member of the royal family are described.
 4. Q. The result of what battle made it necessary for Alcibiades to flee from this stronghold? A. Ægospotami.
 5. Q. Whither did he make his way? A. Into Persian territory.
 6. Q. What was the fate of Alcibiades? A. Suspected shortly of treachery by the Per-

sians, he was attacked in his home by an armed force and put to death.

7. Q. What were the terms of peace offered Athens by Sparta? A. The Long Walls were to be pulled down for the space of a mile and all their ships save twelve to be destroyed.

8. Q. Under what circumstances were the walls destroyed? A. The services of every flute player in Attica were required, and to the sound of the gayest tunes the demolition was made.

9. Q. On the accomplishment of this destruction what was the general feeling regarding Athens? A. That she had suffered a blow from which she could never recover.

10. Q. After Syracuse had defeated the Athenians with what other danger was it threatened?

A. The Carthaginians attacked it and destroyed several towns.

11. Q. Under whose rule was Syracuse at this time? A. That of Dionysius, the tyrant.

12. Q. What other historical character is now brought actively into the scene of the story? A. Xenophon.

13. Q. With what great expedition was he connected? A. That of Cyrus the Younger against his brother, the king of Persia.

14. Q. By what right did Cyrus claim the throne over his older brother? A. That he himself was the oldest son born after his father became king.

15. Q. How did the expedition end? A. In complete disaster and the death of Cyrus.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AFFAIRS GRECIAN AND AMERICAN.

1. From what event may it be said all other events in Greek history are dated?

2. With what important event in American history is it sometimes compared?

3. Who was the George Washington of the Trojan war?

4. By what nation are the Trojans claimed as "Pilgrim Fathers"?

5. What people of Greece received such treatment at the hands of the Spartans as might be compared to that received by the American Indians from the early settlers of America?

6. In what respect did their treatment differ from that of the American Indians?

7. How did the Spartan method of teaching temperance differ from the American?

8. Who was the Edward Bellamy of the Greeks?

9. How did the Spartan senate chamber compare with the American?

10. How did Lycurgus institute a "Protective Tariff" in Sparta?

7. Where and when did the steam engine or locomotive first successfully replace horse power?

8. What was the carrying capacity of this locomotive?

9. Give date and describe first passenger train drawn by a locomotive.

10. To whom belongs the honor of the first high speed locomotive (called the "Rocket") of the standard type? When completed?

11. The "Rocket" possessed the three essential elements of efficiency of the modern locomotive; what are they?

12. Of what use is the sand-box of a locomotive?

13. Mention three kinds of fuel used for locomotives; where is each most popular?

14. By what recent device may the smoke nuisance be mitigated?

15. Describe the plan of the portable railroad designed to transport the German agent Wissmann's steamer to Lake Victoria in Africa.

PRACTICAL SCIENCE. IV.

1. When and where were the first railways in use?

2. How were they originated and improved?

3. To what new method of traction did the great saving of force by the use of iron rails lead?

4. What is a flange?

5. What shape were the rails when a "train of cars" first ran over them?

6. What important change relating to rails and car-wheels took place soon after?

MATTERS EDUCATIONAL.—IV.

1. In what book did Xenophon advocate the education of women?

2. What other Greek writer held that a mother should be capable of taking part in the instruction of her children even in such high studies as mathematics and philosophy?

3. Who, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, wrote "The Coloquy of the Abbé and the Educated Woman," in which the heroine claims for herself the right to learn Latin?

4. What was Luther's thought regarding the education of women?
5. Who in the seventeenth century wrote a book entitled "The Education of Girls"?
6. In such convents as those established for the Ursulines, what were the girls taught in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries?
7. What famous educational institution for women was founded by Madame de Maintenon?
8. What book was written by Racine for this school?
9. What reason did Saint Pierre give for demanding for women national establishments for secondary education?
10. In what fictitious character did Rousseau give his idea of an educated, a perfect, woman?

epochs from which to date important and historical events. 7. A truce of a month proclaimed throughout Greece to enable the people to attend the games and return to their homes in safety. 8. That the body of man has a glory as well as the spirit and the intellect, and they believed in the harmonious discipline of body and mind. 9. They maintained in the nation a general respect for a manly and intrepid character and supported a moral dignity and independence which so long resisted the aggressions from without, and were proof against weak and licentious principles within. 10. Pindar, who sang the praises of the victors as no other poet.

PRACTICAL SCIENCE. III.

WORLD OF TO-DAY—GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS.

1. In what body is the legislative power of France vested?
2. What was the French Press bill which recently nearly caused the resignation of the ministry?
3. What question immediately following the Press bill was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies, and caused the fall of the ministry?
4. What question recently caused the resignation of the Hungarian ministry?
5. What International Conference did the Belgian premier welcome to his government lately?
6. When will the new Gladstone ministry resume its councils?
7. What bill recently presented before the German Reichstag has excited great dislike?
8. Who is the new Canadian premier who took the oath of office November 25 of the present year?

9. What recent government action in the colony of New Zealand has anticipated the political development of the United States and England?

10. What reform bills are to be introduced before the present session of the Italian Parliament?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR DECEMBER.

GRECIAN GAMES.

1. The Olympiads. 2. Every fifth year for more than a thousand years, from 776 B. C. to A. D. 394. In July the second full moon after the summer solstice, lasting five days. 3. Chariot races, foot races, wrestling, boxing, throwing the javelin, etc. 4. A crown of wild olive. 5. His name was given to the five-year periods between the Olympiads. 6. They served as

1. Resistance caused by the tendency of water to adhere to the immersed area (skin area) of a ship. 2. Skin friction and the production of waves. 3. By a difference in the pressure on the bow and stern, caused in pushing aside the water. 4. The excess of pressure on the bow is balanced by the pressure of water closing in behind. 5. By forming a film over the waters it hinders the waves from breaking, thus moderating their violence. 6. Any crude oil, though seal oil is preferred. 7. Lacquering with several different coats of lacquer. 8. It weighed only about half as much. 9. July 19, 1837; "Great Eastern." 10. Baltimore clippers and monitors, both of war renown, the former in 1812 and 1851, the latter in 1862; and the whalebacks, for carrying grain and freight, which although widely known, have scarcely passed the experimental stage.

MATTERS EDUCATIONAL. III.

1. The new birth of literature and art. 2. In Italy. 3. The learned Byzantine Greeks who had lived there fled to different lands. 4. The University of Paris. 5. Entering as a student, he became its most popular teacher. 6. Latin. 7. Languages, history, music, and mathematics. 8. Roger Ascham. 9. The Orbis Pictus or World Displayed. 10. Divisions of students for voting purposes, according to the place of their birth.

WORLD OF TO-DAY.—REPUBLICS.

1. Twenty-two. 2. Switzerland. 3. Seven years, as in France. 4. For six years, four: Argentine, Brazil, Columbia, and Guatemala; for five years, one: Chile. 5. Venezuela. 6. South African Republic. 7. Mexico and Costa Rica. 8. Beggars, persons ignorant of the alphabet, soldiers in actual service, and persons under monastic vows. 9. Chile, Ecuador, and Uruguay. 10. Paraguay.

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1882—1896.

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"I AM most happy in being able to forward my papers for the past year. In the spring it seemed rather a gloomy outlook; I was so far behind in my reading, but I would not write myself a failure for that would imply I had given up and that I have not done. I am now ready calmly to meet the requirements of the fourth and last year of the course."

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CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

A CHAUTAUQUA rally was recently held in Steubenville, Ohio, at the home of one of the offi-

cers of '94. The meeting was addressed by Dr. J. T. Edwards, one of the Chautauqua trustees and state senator from New York. Much enthusiasm was aroused and members of the Class of '94 are to be congratulated upon their share in the good work.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Wilbur F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; Rev. Chauncey M. Pond, Oberlin, O.; Mr. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Mr. G. P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. F. D. Gardener, Manlius, N. Y.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Cor. Secretary—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.

Treasurer—Mr. R. M. Alden, Washington, D. C.

Trustee of the Building Fund—Mr. G. P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Class Historian—Miss Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

A "HOME CIRCLE" in Missouri belongs to the Class of '95. It consists of father, mother, a brother, and two sisters, one of whom has been an invalid during six months of the year. In this busy household the invalid member is the only one who has found time to fill out the memoranda. We hope the others will follow soon.

THE Chautauqua Extension Lectures on "Greek Social Life" seem to reach a very decided need and far from being confined to small communities they appeal to circles in the large towns as well. Many new circles were organized last year under the auspices of '95 and we hope that the members of our class will give this new Chautauqua plan a fair test.

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, East Bloomfield, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; Mr. F. G. Lewis, Birtle, Manitoba.

Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 210 Devilers St., Pittsburg, Pa.

Treasurer—Mrs. Wheaton Smith, cor. Woodward Ave. and Blaine St., Detroit, Mich.

Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, 20 Griswold St., Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

MEMBERS of '96 who have not yet sent on their

fees for enrollment at the Central Office in Buffalo are reminded that the membership books have been out for some weeks and contain many helps for the students. Among others a table for the pronunciation of Greek proper names, a pocket outline of Greek History, a list of books recommended for the supplementary reading and a brief statement of some of the more famous mythological characters of Greece.

THE first month's work under a new plan is generally a somewhat severe test both of the person and of the plan. If one keeps abreast of the other during that time success is pretty sure. If the individual has lost courage because his first attempt seems only a partial success, let that only spur him on to further endeavor. His chances of success in the second effort are far better than the first; for he knows now his own strength as well as the full requirements of the plan which he fain would carry out. Let no '96 drop out of the ranks after a single effort.

THE Class of '96 already numbers its membership by the thousands, and each week sees many hundreds of new names placed upon the roll. We hope that every new reader of the Chautauqua course will not fail to enter the ranks of our class. The annual fee for membership is only fifty cents and the pleasure and inspiration which come from comradeship in study keep many an otherwise solitary reader from dropping out by the way.

'96 may congratulate itself upon having in its ranks its share of undaunted heroes. Word comes from one in Indian Territory, "My first year of work was with the Class of '93, but my work was too arduous and I failed to keep up. I tried again last year but heavy work and ill health interfered and again I failed to finish. So now I propose to try again and you may enter my name for '96. My health is poor and my work arduous, but I propose to keep on trying. I have charge of a small school among the Cherokee Indians. We are miles from any town, in a sparsely settled district—hence I read entirely alone."

A LITTLE circular designed especially to reach persons who might become interested in the C. L. S. C. as individual readers has recently been issued by the Central Office. A small cut of a "Chautauqua Corner" stands at the head of the circular, which presents very clearly the simplicity and the workings of the C. L. S. C. Members of '96 or of other classes who can use these circulars can secure them from the C. L. S. C. Office at Buffalo.

A MEMBER of '96 in Utah in ordering her books for the year says, "Please send in pack-
I-Jan.

ages of not more than three books, two are better, for the mail bags are carried on a buckboard one hundred and forty-five miles, and said bags are used as footstools by the passengers!"

A MOTHER whose son entered college soon after she had begun the work of the C. L. S. C. writes, "Among the loving messages that came to me during the four years, were 'Keep up the reading so that you can keep step with me,' and this year from a distant land he writes again, 'I hope you will graduate.' I am now over fifty years of age and had very few advantages in youth, so that the C. L. S. C. has been an inspiration."

GRADUATES.

THE many C. L. S. C. graduates who are interested in the subject of missions will welcome the two new courses announced both in the membership book and in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. These courses present a general view of mission work in the leading fields and include also some delightful biographies of famous men and women.

A '92 graduate from Great Britain acknowledges the receipt of his diploma and adds, "The course has given me much pleasure and brightened up the college lore of years gone by; for I am now fast approaching sixty years."

THE new course in Art History is finding many enthusiastic supporters. Several clubs are doing admirable work and individual members also are finding much help from the carefully prepared outlines.

C. L. S. C. graduates who are especially interested in economic questions (and who is not in these days?) will be interested in Dr. Ely's plan of Chautauqua Political Economy Clubs. The scheme offers great advantages for club work as Dr. Ely furnishes each member with a letter of printed directions for study, and each club has also a carefully prepared constitution and a charter. A club of this kind can be organized at any time as no particular month is designated for the beginning of the year's work.

A GRADUATE of '87 upbraids himself as an "unprofitable servant" because he has put forth no aggressive effort this year in behalf of the C. L. S. C. He sends for twenty-five circulars, and though he has placed the Chautauqua books in the public library each year and presented the work through the local press, feels that Chautauqua has a continual claim upon him. It is this spirit among Chautauquans which helps to carry the work forward every year.

CLASSMATES OF EIGHTY-NINE:—Standing on the threshold of another year with the portal flung wide open, we look down the long vista, lined on either side with bright anticipations, and wish with you that the journey just beginning may end in happy realizations. Among the former do we not see the Chautauquans' Mecca, beside the lake, where we all hope to meet next August? There, too, behold our Class Building looming up! But just one

shadow falls across the path—that debt not yet paid. Twelve dollars only have been received by our treasurer (Mr. O. M. Allen, 824 Main St., Buffalo, N. Y.). If you have not received the circular setting forth our plan for next summer, forward your address and I will send you one. Wishing you a happy New Year, I remain

Fraternally yours,

LAURA A. SHOTWELL, President,
51 Tompkins Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
PERICLES DAY—January 17.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
EPAMINONDAS DAY—February 16.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

NEW CIRCLES.

ENGLAND.—At Beckenham, Kent, two enterprising young ladies have made a good beginning toward the realization of their day dream, to graduate at Chautauqua in the C. L. S. C.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Nine young people who joined Chautauqua ranks at Goffstown Centre are having a pleasant time getting ready a circle entertainment.

MASSACHUSETTS.—East Saugus has a circle that meets weekly for study.—A circle of three young ladies at Hyde Park and one of eight members at Mattapan have entered upon the year's work.—About twenty members compose the circle at Waltham, which is connected with the Y. W. C. A. They meet monthly under the guidance of an ambitious and experienced Chautauquan.

CONNECTICUT.—From Bridgeport comes the cheerful report of one who last year pursued the course alone. This year he secured the co-operation of several friends with the result of a good circle of fourteen actual and six prospective members.—The twelve members composing the Vincent C. L. S. C. of East Windsor hold their meetings biweekly.—At Trumbull seventeen persons celebrated Halloween by organizing into a society.—A new circle reports from Wapping.

NEW YORK.—Epworth Circle of Brooklyn has

a membership of twenty-three.—A class of Columbians has enrolled from Delaware Ave. Baptist Church, Buffalo.—A small circle at Canton, Shehawken Circle, of a dozen members, at Hancock, Columbians of Rochester, circles at Rushford and Valley Falls, and one which meets in the Tabernacle Baptist Church of Utica, are among those entering upon the new work.—Woodlawn, New York City, has a bright circle of twenty-eight members.

NEW JERSEY.—The following report comes from Chautauquans at Ocean Grove: "Guided by a notice printed in the paper on Friday evening we found a large attendance of Ocean Grove people, young and old, assembled in the hall of the Association building. It was a 'Whittier meeting' from beginning to end, and right faithfully did every one perform his part for the evening. Under the general arrangement of a Chautauqua Reading Circle a large class has taken up the prescribed course for the present year. We were pleased to notice as the leaders of the movement and most active promoters of its grand purpose, the graduates of former years. It gives them pleasure to continue the readings of every year, and encourage younger members to identify themselves heartily with the Chautauqua idea. This circle proposes to meet every second Friday evening and will prove one of the most beneficial and popular

institutions, outside of the church, which is fostered at Ocean Grove, to keep up social and intellectual interest during the winter months. It is our intention as far as possible not to miss a single meeting."—A good-sized class at Springfield constitutes the Columbine Circle, whose meetings are interesting, the members all participating creditably in the work. C. L. S. C. songs are used. The following plan of study, as adapted by this circle to suit its own requirements, deserves careful perusal: I. Read each week the required portions, marking with pencil, or noting on paper, the more important, striking, or interesting parts. II. Go over the marked or noted parts again, and write out at least one note for each chapter or article, noting: (1) An important fact mentioned, (2) an idea that is new or interesting, (3) something you wish to remember, (4) a thought suggested by the reading, (5) a question raised by it, (6) a related idea or fact from elsewhere. III. At the weekly meeting compare notes and talk about them.—A reading society for the Chautauqua Christian Endeavor course has been organized with bright prospects at Westfield. It admits students of the regular C. L. S. C. course to its ranks, and indeed is intended as a preliminary to the regular course.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A class of twenty-two members organized at Aldham, some of whom, not being able to pursue the studies, joined for the enjoyment the meetings afford.—Butler has a thriving circle, faithful in individual work and ambitious to popularize C. L. S. C. interests.—The Class of '96 is glad to welcome a reinforcement of several members from Highspire.—Quite a class has clustered about the home readers at Lewisburgh.—A local circle of a half dozen readers hails from Rawlinsville.—The electric C. L. S. C. of Scranton has begun operations with officers duly elected. It has for its motto, "May the current of knowledge complete its circuit in our minds," and for its symbol, a trolley, both piquantly suggestive.—The Stewartstown Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle has a membership of eleven.—York Circle enrolls twenty-four.

MARYLAND.—A double quartet is harmoniously at work at Centralia.

WEST VIRGINIA.—A home reading circle at Huntington asks to be duly enrolled.—Sutton has a band of good workers.

FLORIDA.—Bright prospects are the happy reward of organization at Sanford.—Variety is the spice of life! At Melbourne is a circle of fifteen members representing at least eight different states. They expect more members

and more variety a little later when northern tourists arrive.

OHIO.—Apprise of new circles has been received from Arcanum, Ashtabula, Clyde, Fair Haven, Jeffersonville, West Elkton, and Canton; the latter place being credited with eight circles whose names, with the exception of the Baptist Circle, are not yet reported.—A new circle is begun at Cleveland. Impetus was given to the Chautauqua movement there by a well-attended meeting held under the auspices of the Cleveland Chautauqua Union, in the parlors of the First M. E. Church. The various phases of the Chautauqua system were explained; several addresses and other exercises followed, and an official board was appointed to look after Chautauqua interests in Cleveland.—An earnest Chautauquan at Painesville is slowly but surely building up a circle in that vicinity.—Wapakoneta Circle is earnestly engaged in study.—Akron has two circles; one, the *Dakotah Plow* Circle, being composed entirely of relatives.

MICHIGAN.—Whittier Circle at Bay Mills and a circle at Benton Harbor are beginners in Chautauqua work.

INDIANA.—The Worth Literary Club at South Bend, an outgrowth of the Dr. Rettring Circle of the S. H. G., is doing very good work in the special course in Shakespeare. Its object as expressed in its constitution is, "the attainment of a liberal culture by a study of the minds and art of the world's great authors."—Classes are formed at Kolomo and Indianapolis (the Columbians).

WISCONSIN.—The Chrestomatheans of La Crosse rejoice in the possession of good musical talent to vary their programs.—There is a new circle at South Milwaukee.

ILLINOIS.—A very interesting circle has arisen at Blue Island, of nineteen energetic persons representing a great variety of business talent.—At Braidwood the local circle has met three times, evincing much pleasure in the studies.—At Chicago the New England C. L. S. C. recently formed rejoices in twenty members and a bright outlook; Tegner Circle holds a social meeting the first and third Wednesday of every month; the Radiance finished the required readings Halloween; the latter passes its pleasant meetings around to the homes of the various members.—Columbus Day was observed with interesting exercises by the new circle at Griggsville.—A large circle has been formed at Moline under the direction of the Literary Department of the Epworth League of the First M. E. Church.—Circles at Sullivan (the Callias), Turner, Mt. Carroll, and Washburn report for the first time.

ALABAMA.—A circle at Hurtsboro enlists for the Class of '96.

MINNESOTA.—Circles have entered upon a hopeful career at Graceville, Herman, Slayton, Worthington, and Minneapolis (Olivet Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle).

IOWA.—From Des Moines comes the news: The Columbia Chautauqua Circle organized in North Des Moines, in September, with about thirty enthusiastic, earnest members. "Very satisfactory work is being done and the prospects for a successful year are excellent." Also a P. M. class of ladies has organized with the name Isabelle. About two hundred persons of Des Moines attended the Chautauqua meeting convened to form a "General Local Union," so-called because local unions had already been formed in various parts of the city. The meeting was zestful and instructive. Chautauqua interests were ably set forth by several speakers, and vocal and violin music added to the general enjoyment. "Several classes were reported as already organized, equipped, and at work; others as still in a formative period and still others prospective."—Two sisters, both valiant Chautauqua workers, send the two following reports: "At present there are ten Chautauqua Circles in Oskaloosa; seven doing the regular work; one circle of twenty-eight registered members taking the graduate course in American History; another with twenty-seven registered members doing the special Shakespeare work, and a class of fourteen registered members taking the special course in Art History." The sister at What Cheer says: "There is a club here of about thirty men and women; great interest has been manifested and very good work is being done. We have also a fine Shakespeare club."—At Otho a circle is beginning the year's work.—Stewart has two thriving circles, one of more than forty members, the other restricted to ten, between which there is considerable rivalry to demonstrate whether a large or small circle is better for Chautauqua work. Their progress will be eagerly watched by those hesitating between one large, and several small but closely related, circles.—Short reports are received from Barnes City C. L. S. C., Colfax, Burnside, Glenwood, Perry (Columbians), and Logan.

MISSOURI.—The name Aristotelian suggests appropriately the high ideal and earnest purpose of the class at Marshall.—Large classes are at work at Monroe City and Odessa.—The circles of Sedalia, most of which are connected with some church there, unite once a month as a Union Circle. Much benefit will no doubt accrue from this excellent plan.—Small cir-

cles have enrolled at Warrenton and St. Louis.

ARKANSAS.—A growing circle at Ozark sends its greeting.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The correspondent from Hot Springs says: "A large C. L. S. C. was organized in this city. As the members lived so far apart it was thought best to have meetings in the four directions. Four vice presidents were elected, one for each locality, to preside over the weekly meetings. All meet together once a month in the college chapel, under the leadership of the president. Besides this we have a circle of four taking the post-graduate course."—There is a circle at Ashton and one at Lennox (Whittier).

NEBRASKA.—Encouraging letters come from Beatrice, DeWitt, and Lincoln.

KANSAS.—Similar reports come from Long Island and Onaga of lone readers who have attracted a circle about them.

UTAH.—At Salt Lake City a circle has organized.

OREGON.—A score of energetic persons constitute a circle at University Park.

CALIFORNIA.—This year one circle of Pasadena has been replaced by three, one of which, the Lake Circle, has a dozen new members.—The Y. M. C. A. Circle of Los Angeles organized with twenty-eight members and expects soon to increase the number.

OLD CIRCLES.

MEXICO.—Seven applicants from Pueblo are gladly received into the central circle.

CANADA.—A number of new readers lately joined the circle at Belleville, Ont.—Pleasant Hour Circle of Brantford, Ont., has a large constituent of local members, who, it is hoped, will soon register in the central circle and enjoy the benefits to be derived therefrom. As several in this circle are taking the Shakespearian course, the programs are agreeably adjusted to include Shakespearian work.—Pierian Circle at Clinton, Ont., has renewed study.—The class at Dundas, Ont., enjoys a large per cent of new members.—Work is resumed at Point de Bute, N. B.

MAINE.—Bimonthly meetings of the Way-farer Circle of Augusta continue to attract new members. The circle's work is progressing in a manner to make pleasant the memory of its motto, "Who goes not forward goes backward."—Anabasis Circle at Biddeford Pool and the circle at Skowhegan announce reorganization.—From Damariscotta the following is received: The Skidompha Club is in a very prosperous condition. It has been organized eight years and consists of thirty-five members, among

whom are three of the clergymen and many of the teachers of the town. They own a well-selected library of nearly seven hundred volumes to which additions are being made weekly. The library is accessible to all on payment of two dollars per year. Meetings of the club are held weekly. It supplies a needed means for social enjoyment and literary advantages. Most of the members have previously taken a Chautauqua course.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Sunapee C. L. S. C., though not able to go into elaborate programs, is a good working circle, and its meetings are highly satisfactory; they could not be otherwise, as each member makes it his pride to maintain the circle's high average of scholarship.—A small circle, the Attiash, reports from Wakefield.

VERMONT.—Live circles are heard from at Montpelier and West Randolph.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The circle at Bridgewater and Budleigh Circle of Beverly have renewed their relations with the C. L. S. C.—Notwithstanding the modesty of the report from Rowley Circle, the circle record seems to unite brilliancy with thoroughness. The class has bought a wall map of Greece, also all members are provided with outline maps to be filled in during the term of study; when the history is finished there will be an exhibition of maps, and a prize awarded to the one who has the best. At one meeting the circle was favored by selections from Homer and Xenophon's *Anabasis* first read in Greek, then translated. Its latest plan is an excursion through Greece with the stereopticon.—River-Parker C. L. S. C. at Byfield, composed of sixteen regular members and twenty-three others who read some or all of the readings, says: "Chautauqua meant a great deal to us last winter, we had grand meetings; the outside world looked on and wished they were in it." Their outlook at present is brighter than ever.—The Epworth League C. L. S. C. of the First M. E. Church in Lynn reports rapid growth in membership and meetings well attended.—Circles at Manchester-by-the-Sea, Peabody, Springfield (Golden Rod), Sunderland (Excelsior), Winthrop, and Woburn (Central Square), are in progress of a series of pleasant and profitable meetings.

RHODE ISLAND.—What Cheer Circle of Providence had a basket picnic for its last meeting and voted to change the circle's name to Goodier Circle. It is small in number, but enthusiastic, and hopes to do good work this winter.

CONNECTICUT.—Messages of good purport come from circles at Bridgeport (Vincent), New

Britain, South Norwalk (Chautauqua Union), and Waterbury (Teachers' Circle).

NEW YORK.—Hawthorne Circle of Andover, The Originals of Auburn, Jones and Lowell of Brooklyn continue their meetings with success.—Brooklyn Chautauqua Union is a well-organized and flourishing society to foster a spirit of congeniality.—Buffalo Chautauqua Union now embraces nine active circles. Circles Hope, Wilbor, Nurses' Progressive (of the State Hospital) of Buffalo have made a good beginning, as have also Irving Circle at Chittenango, and classes at Castle Creek, Canandaigua, Candor, Marathon, Crescent Circle of Hornellsville, and Epworth C. L. S. C. of Jamestown.—Fairport's three circles have organized auspiciously. They are the Kensington, the North Side, and the Post Graduate.—The circle at Jamaica, L. I., has re-enlisted.—In New York City, the circle at Alexander Avenue Baptist Church, circle of Highbridge, and Garfield and Irving Circles have resumed Chautauqua work; the 43rd St. Cosmopolitan Circle with its increased numbers expects to do more work.—Readers at Northville are at study again.—The interest of West Side Circle, Ogdensburg, is denoted by the addition of six new members.—Sunny Side Circle of Tarrytown reorganized with full membership.—From the circle at Stockbridge comes a good letter full of youthful enthusiasm.—Tonawanda C. L. S. C., circles Lakeside at Tilly Foster, Columbian at Stan-fordville, Lowell at Rochester, Columbia at Port Byron, Accrescent at Oswego, and readers at Potter report favorably.—Good Will Circle of Sherman "is prospering, and all its members say the work is the best and the pleasantest they ever tried."—The special course in Shakespeare is the theme of the study club of Rhinebeck.—C. L. S. C. Alumni Association of Syracuse is paying its attention this year to the Garnet Seal Course.

NEW JERSEY.—Whittier Circle of Camden reports "reorganization this year with the old membership of sixteen. As this is the sixth year of the circle, we simply take up the magazine work and have begun German with a paid teacher."—Asbury Park Circle, Elizabeth C. L. S. C., the Palisades Circle of Englewood, Bergen Circle at Jersey City, Robert Street C. L. S. C. of Union, and classes at Perth Amboy, Passaic, and Newark are industriously pursuing the year's study.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Hyperions of Coleraine are pursuing the Garnet Seal Course.—Verona and Oakmont Circles of Oakmont have united, with the name of Emanon.—Circles are in progress at the following places: Allegheny,

Altoona (Adams), Bethlehem, Chandler's Valley, Ercildoun (Almoyck), Greenville, Johnstown (Kalmia Klub), Kennett Square (Life Builders), Lewistown (Juniata), Monongahela City (Whittier), Miles' Grove, Philadelphia (Vernon), Punxsutawney, Steelton, Swarthmore, Taylorstown, Waterford, and White Haven.

MARYLAND.—A trio of readers have bravely tackled their fourth year at Baltimore.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Several readers at Georgetown are continuing the reading.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Avalon Circle reports from Holliday's Cove.

GEORGIA.—Uniformly active interest is sustained in each of the three independent circles of Atlanta: the Mizpah, the A. R. Holderby, and Edgewood.

OHIO.—The C. L. S. C. at Geneva has opened its regular meetings, having extended an invitation to all country readers to be present thereat. —The Hawthornes of Zanesville, Bryants of Toledo, the River View C. L. S. C. of New Richmond, the Oakdales of Cleveland, Longfellow Circle of New London, Alpha Circle of Newark, Croghan Circle of Fremont, Defiance Local Circle of Defiance, Warren C. L. S. C. of Columbus, Carroll Circle of Carrollton, Epworth League Circle of Canton, Alphas of Bryan have reorganized for the season; also circles at Bellaire, Bridgeport, Cincinnati, Hartwell, Lithopolis, Marietta, Medina, Middletown, Old Fort, Paulding, Savannah, and Wilmot. —The Chautauqua Union of Cleveland scores a meeting of unusual interest, also Omic Circle has begun the year auspiciously, priding itself on its success thus far.

MICHIGAN.—Forty-five persons comprise the class at Otsego. —Few in number but earnest and determined is the word from the circle at Three Rivers. —Truth Seekers of Battle Creek form an interesting and progressive circle. —Circles have resumed work at Salem, Plainwell, Midland, Litchfield, Howell, and Dowagiac.

INDIANA.—The Philomatheans of Butler have had their ranks recruited and are all equipped to enter the battle for knowledge. —There are thriving circles at Elwood, Crown Point, Fort Wayne, Evansville (Trinity Circle), Knightstown, Michigan City (Lew Wallace), Mishawaka (Gillespie Kimball), Tipton, and Valparaiso. —In Indianapolis the Old Hall Peace Circle held its first meeting as a circle for this season, with promising result. Chautauqua interest in that city seems to be contagious and several large new classes have been formed.

WISCONSIN.—Brief messages have been received from circles at Hillsboro, Horicon, and Viola.

ILLINOIS.—The scribe of Dauville writes as follows: "The Lindisfarm Chautauqua Circle launches out on the third year's work under most favorable auspices. Owing to the inconvenience of entertaining a large circle at private homes in the cold weather, we have decided to limit the membership to twenty; but are trying with some success to interest others in forming a new circle, hoping that in the near future all the literary and musical clubs in the city will unite in the project to erect a club building which will prove the 'Lindisfarm' of our prosperous city." —Florence Circle, a large class at La Harpe, is in a flourishing condition. One of the members who is awaiting her diploma says her mother who is eighty years old has read with her and enjoyed the four years' course. —Virden has a highly interesting circle of young people. —There are live circles at Arenzville, Aurora (Vincent), Bloomington (Prairie), Ashton, Austin, Canton, Chicago (Willard and Minerva circles), South Chicago, Delavan (Beta), Dundee, Evanston (Hawthorne), Fairfield, Hampshire (Norris), Hunda (Sunset), Genoa, Huntley, Jerseyville, Lacon, Milford, Naperville, Onarga (Harmony Alumni), Princeville, Prophetstown, Springfield, and Duquoin.

KENTUCKY.—Chautauqua classes are in good running order at Hickory Grove, Louisville (Consonants), and Newport.

ALABAMA.—Augusta Evans Chautauqua Circle of Mobile has begun the second year of its existence with regular semimonthly meetings, at which the members read, debate, and quiz upon subjects suggested by the daily reading. At the end of each annual course prizes will be awarded. Many applications for membership encourage the circle.

MINNESOTA.—Circles at Owatonna and Crookston, are anxious to begin their study. —Readers at Minneapolis are endeavoring to finish the last two years' work so that they may graduate in their respective classes. Linnea Circle at Minneapolis starts with seventeen members of whom more than half are novices in the work. Dainty printed programs are issued to members and to those who are invited to attend the meetings. —Silver Lake Literary Society of North St. Paul is following the regular Chautauqua studies, with a growing membership.

IOWA.—Twenty-one members constitute the Magellan Circle at Wellman. —Ruskin Circle at Shenandoah has revived study with its limited number of thirty members. —Frances E. Willard Circle of LeClaire finds its second year's work new and inviting, inspiring all its members with the ambition to master the scheduled studies. —An eight-year-old circle at Dunlap

has just finished the English History and Literature course and wishes something new.—Brief words come from circles at Corydon, Des Moines (Vincent of Univ. Place), Fort Dodge, Griswold (Accrescent), Marion (Laurel), Mt. Ayr, Olin, (Habberton), Rolfe, Sheldon (Wild Rose), Victor (Round Table).

MISSOURI.—The '92 graduates comprising the Mary De La Virgine C. L. S. C. at Clinton are eager to begin the English course.—In Sedalia, besides Vernon Circle there are three prospective active circles. A Union meeting has been instituted to meet once a month.—The year's work has been begun by circles at the following places: Schell City, Oregon, Lawson, Kansas City (Pickwickian C. L. S. C.), Brookfield, and Bowling Green.

ARKANSAS.—Graduates at Van Buren will read the English History and Literature Course.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The circle at Yankton and Nonpareil C. L. S. C. of Custer City have re-organized with full membership.

NORTH DAKOTA.—A class of '95's report from Wahpeton.

NEBRASKA.—The year's roll call is responded to by the following: Ascendants of Independence, Santa Marias of Emporia, and classes at Adams, Herington, Hutchinson, and Louisville.—The Stewart St. C. L. S. C. of Omaha opened its fourth year with a banquet, to which those interested in Chautauqua work were invited. The affair was a most enjoyable one, fifty persons being present. The following toasts were responded to: The Education of Later Life, General Mottoes, Class of 1893, Class of 1894, Class of 1895, Our Officers, Our Last Year's Work—"The Trail of the Pathfinders"—Our Good Friend, Our Literary Fellow-Workers, Our Guests, Our Hostess. Of these, all of which were a credit to the circle, "The Trail of the Pathfinders" found special favor. The meetings, held every two weeks, are conspicuous this year for the large number of young people interested in them. The enrolled attendance is thirty, and visitors always attend. The circle is doing exemplary work.

TEXAS.—The Athenian of Tyler is a thorough-going circle which keeps its membership list up to the fullest limit.—The Mosaics of Hearne have re-enlisted.—Names are received for enrollment from Lampasas.

COLORADO.—Deep interest is shown by the Garden of the Gods Circle at Colorado City. It has adopted the clover for its emblem.—'95's are busy at Idaho Springs.—Graduating exercises of the Silver Queen Chautauqua Class of

Georgetown which occurred at the home of one of the members was a most enjoyable event. About fifty persons were present. The parlors were beautifully decorated, and especially beautiful was an embankment of flowers, reaching to the ceiling. The graduates were dressed in costumes representing the Greek, Roman, English, and American years. Prominence was given the class motto, "Seek and ye shall obtain," and at the close of the very pleasant program, refreshments were served. The class enrollment for the year will be about twenty-six.—Omicron Circle of Denver has adopted the plan of appointing one member to prepare a program at one week's notice to be submitted in time to allow two weeks' preparation for its execution. Excellent program blanks allowing space for notes have been provided, a full set of which for the year have been bound together into a neat book to be filled out and kept as a circle record. The circle's plan of criticism is to take notes of all points prompting praise, censure, or interrogations, which are then reserved for the time specially devoted thereto shortly before the meeting closes.

NEW MEXICO.—Albuquerque has a class of readers.

UTAH.—At Mt. Pleasant the Pioneers of San Pete have secured new members to replace those who have moved away.—Enthusiasm runs high at Nob Hill C. L. S. C. of Ogden.

NEVADA.—Sagebush Circle, Reno, is again heard from.

WASHINGTON.—An enthusiastic Chautauquan at Seattle wishes he could duplicate himself in order to attend all the circles which chanced to meet on the same evening. Reorganization has taken place in circles Weewyck (the Queen), Fremont, Queen Anne, Tyee, Columbian, and the Lake Union Ladies' Circle.—In Tacoma three circles have revived, and at Olympia in addition to the old circle, a new one is in progress.

OREGON.—Si-wock-ti Si-mox, of Salem, has admitted many new local members.—The little class at Astoria is still active.

CALIFORNIA.—An interesting and profitable public session was held by the Marengo Avenue Circle at Pasadena.—Circles Houghton of Oakland, Gleaner of San Diego, Revera of Williams, and Sacramento (Vincent) have again directed their attention Chautauqua-ward.—Five members of Jacinto Circle of University have finished the Golden Seal Course.

ARIZONA.—New members have swelled the list of the class at Prescott.

THE LIBRARY TABLE.

THE SEASONS.

LASTLY came Winter, cloathèd all in frize,
Chattering his teeth for cold that did him chill;
Whilst on his hoary beard his breath did freeze,
And the dull drops that from his purple bill
As from a limbeck did adowna distill;
In his right hand a tipped staff he held
With which his feeble steps he stayèd still,
For he was faint with cold and weak with eld,
That scarce his loosèd limbs he able was to weld.

—From *Spenser's "Faërie Queene."*

THE NEW YEAR.

IN this season of festivity the gate of time swings on its hinges and an honest rosy-faced New Year comes waddling in, like a jolly fat-sided alderman, loaded with good wishes, good humor, and mince pies. At this joyous era it has been the custom, from time immemorial, to tender the compliments of the season; I will take this opportunity to salute my readers with as many good wishes as I can possibly spare.

The honest gray-beard custom of setting apart a certain portion of existence for the purposes of cordiality, social merriment, and good cheer, is one of the inestimable relics handed down to us from our worthy Dutch ancestors. In perusing one of the manuscripts from my worthy grandfather's mahogany chest of drawers, I find the New Year was celebrated with great festivity during that golden age of our city, when the reins of government were held by the renowned Rip Van Dam, who always did honor to the season by seeing out the Old Year. In his days, according to my grandfather, were first invented these notable cakes, New-Year cookies, which originally were impressed on one side with the honest, burly countenance of the illustrious Rip; and on the other with that of the noted St. Nicholas, vulgarly called Santa Claus, of all the saints in the calendar the most venerated by true Hollanders, and their unsophisticated descendants. These cakes are to this time given on the first of January to all visitors. It is with great regret, however, that I observe that the simplicity of this venerable usage has been much violated by modern pretenders to style, and our respectable New-Year cookies elbowed aside by plum-cake in the same way that our worthy old Dutch families are out-dazzled by modern upstarts and mushroom cockneys.

In addition to this divine origin of New-Year

festivity, there is something exquisitely grateful, to a good-natured mind, in seeing every face dressed in smiles; in hearing the oft-repeated salutations that flow spontaneously from the heart to the lips; in beholding the poor, for once, enjoying the smiles of plenty, and forgetting the cares which press hard upon them, in the jovial revelry of the feelings; the young children decked out in their Sunday clothes and freed from their only cares, the cares of school, tripping through the streets on errands of pleasure; and even the very negroes, those holiday-loving rogues, gorgeously arrayed in cast-off finery, collected in jontos, at corners, displaying their white teeth, and making the welkin ring with bursts of laughter,—loud enough to crack even the icy cheek of old winter. There is something so pleasant in all this, that I confess it would give me real pain to behold the frigid influence of modern style cheating us of this jubilee of the heart; and converting it, as it does every other article of social intercourse, into an idle and unmeaning ceremony. 'Tis the annual festival of good humor; it comes in the dead of winter, when nature is without a charm, when our pleasures are contracted to the fireside, and when everything that unlocks the icy fetters of the heart, and sets the genial current flowing, should be cherished, as a stray lamb found in the wilderness; or a flower blooming among thorns and briars.

It is a time to resolve to enjoy life with the genuine relish of honest souls; careless of riches, honors, and everything but a good name, among good fellows; and with the full expectation of shuffling off the remnant of existence, after the excellent fashion of that merry Grecian who died laughing.—From *Washington Irving's "Salmagundi."*

IN RUINS.

HERE let me sit upon this massy stone,
The marble column's yet unshaken base!
Here, son of Saturn, was thy favorite throne!
Mightiest of many such! Hence let me trace
The latent grandeur of thy dwelling-place.

It may not be: nor even can Fancy's eye
Restore what Time hath labor'd to deface.
Yet these proud pillars claim no passing sigh;
Unmoved the Moslem sits, the light Greek
carols by.

But who, of all the plunderers of yon fane
On high, where Pallas linger'd, loth to flee,
The latest relic of her ancient reign—
The last, the worst, dull spoiler, who was he?
Blush, Caledonia! such thy son could be!

Cold is the heart, fair Greece, that looks on thee,
Nor feels as lovers o'er the dust they loved;
Dull is the eye that will not weep to see
Thy walls defaced, thy mouldering shrines removed.

And yet how lovely in thine age of woe,
Land of lost gods and godlike men, art thou!
Thy vales of evergreen, thy hills of snow,
Proclaim thee Nature's varied favorite now;
Thy fanes, thy temples to thy surface bow,

Commingle slowly with heroic earth,
Broke by the share of every rustic plow;
So perish monuments of mortal birth,
So perish all in turn, save well-recorded worth.
—From Byron's "*Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*."

COUSIN COCOA.

MEVROUW LOSSELL'S cousin came to see Elias. She was very self-confident and important, and that seems only natural, for her husband's chocolate was the very best in the world, as is the chocolate of everybody who manufactures chocolate at all. Chocolate and cocoa are just like sweethearts. Each is better than all the others. Mevrouw Lossell did not fully appreciate Mevrouw van Bussen's sterling qualities. Her great merit consisted in knowing better than all her neighbors what was good for them and their children, and this admirable characteristic Mevrouw Lossell had never succeeded in finding out.

"I shall go and call on Judith Lossell this afternoon," said this good lady to her husband at breakfast. "There are a hundred other things I ought to do, undoubtedly, but I shall leave them all and go."

"I should do what I ought to," remarked her husband quietly.

He was a very worthy man. He had never looked farther than the tip of his own nose; and it was a short one.

"I mean 'ought to,' if I consulted my own convenience," retorted Mevrouw van Bussen; "but I rarely find occasion to do that."

"Can't always neglect it," said the chocolate-maker, with his mouth full.

"If you mean to insinuate, Titus, that I do not look after my own household," flashed out his wife, "I can only advise you to go and stay for

three days with the Lossells. I only advise you to. And she with her two children and a half to my ten!"

"Why should I go and stay with them when we live in the same town, Amelia?" asked Titus. "And, if you are going, you might take Elias a box of chocolates. I'll send you one up from the office."

"Never!" cried Mevrouw, energetically pouring out the tea. "That woman would say—behind my back—that I had poisoned the child. I know she sent for a tin of Van Houten's cocoa the other day from the grocer's."

"Never mind," said Van Bussen good-naturedly. "Ours is the best. Van Houten's is well enough when you can't get ours."

By the by, a strange misfortune befell our good friend Van Bussen the other day. He had paid the Koopstad Tramcar Company a swinging price to have boards put up outside all their trams with "Van Bussen's Cocoa is the best" in enormous letters. And when the contract had been signed and sealed, and made hard and fast for a twelvemonth, there came his hated Rotterdam rival, and he paid the company a still swinginger price to have his boards put up just under the other man's. And on these boards was written in yet more enormous letters: "When you can't get Van Swink's."

"Well, how do you do, Elias?" said "Cousin Cocoa," as the little Lossells called her. She had just been ushered into the room where the child sat alone with his dog. In spite of all her cleverness, Mevrouw van Bussen constantly forgot either the boy's deafness or his blindness in her occasional intercourse with him. Now, however, in the unaltered silence, she realized and blushed over her mistake. She stood hesitating near the door. There was a strange dog on Elias' lap, and this creature, a bundle of odds and ends of brown untidiness, sat up and growled at her. Mevrouw van Bussen had nerves of iron; it was something else in her that lived in constant terror of little dogs.

"Who is there?" said Elias. "Come and feel my hand, please."

He could always perceive the entry of some one into the room—the opening and shutting of a door, or any other sudden displacement of air being felt by him, though he could not hear it.

Mevrouw van Bussen shrank back before Tonnerre's redoubled growls, and Elias vainly repeated his question. Then suddenly frightened by the unexpected continuance of silence, smitten by one of those panics which complete helplessness is apt to produce, he started from his chair, crying out: "To the rescue! Danger! Thieves!"

and fell over a footstool in his haste to get away, bringing down with him in his fall a column with a favorite statuette of his stepmother's. Tonnerre flew straight at Mevrouw van Bussen, who, skipping back all too rapidly, with her skirts drawn tightly round her, sat down suddenly in a bowl of flowers. Upon this confusion entered Judith Lossell, as placid as concealed vexation can manage to be, terribly placid.

"Yes; the child's condition is a great affliction," she said smoothly, as she helped up her dripping cousin out of the pool of water and broken glass. "I am sorry you could not help frightening him, as you say, for that flower basket was given me by my sister who is dead, and the statuette had been my mother's. Not that it matters; only, of course, one gets attached to these things. Oh, no, I should not say your mantle was entirely spoiled, not if you take out the stained part, and put in another piece, although I fear you will not be able to match the color exactly—it is such a—a—peculiar color. Be quiet, do!"—here she turned fiercely on Tonnerre who had never left off barking. "Oh, yes; he certainly bites! but I don't fancy he will bite you, Amelia; but if he does, you must bear it."

"Judith!" cried Amelia in disgust and admiration. She was whisking round and round in futile efforts to get a full view of the damage to her mantle, and Tonnerre, who believed she was attempting to amuse him, was whisking after her in jumps and snaps. Not till Tonnerre had been turned into, and a cane-bottomed chair had been fetched out of, the hall did Mevrouw van Bussen resume her efforts to enter into communication with little Elias. Then she sat down by his side, and guided his hand over her face. Mevrouw van Bussen had the bulbousest of bulbous noses. As soon as the blind child's hand reached it, he exclaimed in accents partly of vexation and partly of amusement:

"Why, it's only Cousin Cocoa, mamma!"

The reaction from the alarm he had just experienced threw him completely off his guard.

The chocolate-makeress appreciated neither the contentment of the "only," nor the humor of the nickname thus suddenly flung in her face. She was smarting with the humiliation of her cousin's broken crockery, and sprang delightedly at the retaliation of a grievance of her own. She let go little Elias' hand.

"I am sorry to perceive, Judith," she said, bristling up, "that you encourage your children to speak disrespectfully of me. I have always considered such matters from a very different point of view. When my children began to speak of Elias here as 'Deafy,' I put it down at

once with a high hand, though he could not even hear it. I see now that I might have spared my wrath—for it is evident that you do not consider it necessary to punish your children for the faults of mine, or rather, I mean, that what is a punishment for my children should be a fault in yours, I mean that the faults of my punishment—"

"Exactly," said Judith in her clearest voice.

Mevrouw van Bussen preferred to scramble out of her muddle as quickly as possible.

"And even this afternoon," she went on excitedly, "I came here, only actuated by the sincerest interest in that child's welfare, though I am no cousin of his, whether Cocoa or otherwise! I had better go, Judith, since I am an object of derision and a source of amusement. Do not, pray, think I am vexed with Elias; I pity him far too much for that, but I certainly am of opinion that your children—"

"Of course, if you wish to go, I shall not detain you," interrupted Mevrouw Lossell, as her visitor rose while speaking, "but I should advise you to consider the desirability of waiting till your dress is dried. The stain shows, you know, when you get up."

Mevrouw van Bussen sat down again with great rapidity, and said:

"I cannot understand, my dear cousin, why you have never tried the experiment of treating Elias' case homeopathically."

"You remember, dear cousin," replied Judith, "that I experimented on Henkie's chilblains homeopathically at your request. I gave the child sips of *vox populi* and *belladonna* alternately every half hour for a week, and somebody was always upsetting the tumblers with their paper covers, and making messes all over the room."

"Not '*vox populi*,' '*nux vomica*,'" said Mevrouw van Bussen, with a great air of superiority. "Besides, the chilblains got better."

"Yes, when the warm weather came round, but we had left off the medicines long before that."

"After all, the homeopathic system is the only rational one," said the chocolate-makeress. "Simile syllabubs," as my doctor always says, which, you know, means, 'cure like with like.' Now, the reasonableness of that must strike every one immediately. It 'jumps to the eyes!'"

"Why?" asked Judith.

"Oh, because,—because—of course, it is a law of nature, like gravitation, and all that, you know! And I think—not that I wish to give you any advice on the matter—that the system might well be tried on Elias."

"I can't make him blinder," said Mevrouw

Lossell, with a half-suppressed yawn. "You could only put it into practice on a one-eyed person. Elias hasn't got any eyes left to put out, poor boy!"

"You willfully misapprehend me, Judith. You ought to give him phosphorus for his brain, and aconite for his—well, at any rate, certainly aconite."

"Oh, undoubtedly, aconite!" said Judith.

"It is your business, after all, not mine, if the child gets better. Not but that I would do anything in my power, anything—for I have ten of my own—only I am afraid of appearing to meddle. I have spoken to my homeopathic doctor about the case, but he refuses to give an opinion until he has seen the patient. So I thought you might step down to his house with Elias one of these days. His hours are from one to three."

"Thank you," replied Mevrouw Lossell negligently. "I will put him down on my list. I shall hardly be able to get to him this week, because I already have nine physicians previously recommended, and a magnetism-man and a somnambulist, not to speak of Holloway's pills, and a family ointment. But as soon as your man's turn comes round, I shall give Elias his dose of aconite. Do you think I might give it him before the doctor says he is to have it, or do you deem it absolutely necessary to wait till after?"

"Judith," replied Mevrouw van Bussen, "I will trouble you to ask your man to get me a cab. When you feel sorry, you had better come and tell me so."

"I feel sorry already," said Judith—"very sorry," and again her eyes wandered toward the dark stain on the floor.

"I know all about your goings on, Judith," continued Amelia, again making for the door. "If you think Elias' health will improve upon inaction and Van Houten's cocoa, you will find out your mistake when it is too late."

"I know," said Judith, "Van Bussen's is the best."—*From Maarten Maartens' "God's Fool."**

THE FREEBOOTER.

No door has my house,
No house has my door;
And in and out ever
I carry my store.

No grate has my kitchen,
No kitchen my grate;
Yet roasts it and boils it
Both early and late.

My bed has no trestles,
My trestles no bed;
Yet merrier moments
No mortal e'er led.

My cellar is lofty,
My barn is full deep,
From top to the bottom,—
There lie I and sleep.

And soon as I waken,
All moves on its race;
My place has no fixture,
My fixture no place.

—Goethe.

THE CHARIOT OF THE SOUL.

OUR soul, which has a triple nature, is as a charioteer riding in a chariot drawn by two winged steeds—one of a mortal and the other of an immortal nature. Their wings are the divine element, which, if it be perfect and fully nourished on the pastures of truth and beauty, lifts the soul heavenward to the dwelling of the gods. There, on a certain day, gods and demigods ascend the heaven of heavens—Zeus leading the way in a winged chariot—to hold high festival, and all who can may follow. The gods and the immortal souls, whose steeds have full-grown wings, are carried by a revolution of the spheres into a celestial world beyond, where all space is filled by a sea of intangible essence which the mind—"lord of the soul"—alone can contemplate; and here are the absolute ideas of Truth and Beauty and Justice. And in these divine pastures of pure knowledge the soul feeds during the time that the spheres revolve, and rests in perfect happiness, and then returns to the heavens whence it came, where the steeds feast in their stalls on nectar and ambrosia.

But only to a few souls out of many is it granted to see these celestial visions. The rest are carried into the gulfs of space by the plunging of the unruly horses, or lamed by unskillful driving; and often the wings droop or are broken, and the soul fails to see the light, and sinks to earth "beneath the double load of forgetfulness or vice." And then she takes the form of a man, and becomes a mortal creature; and, according to the degree in which she has attained to celestial truth, she is implanted in one of nine classes—the highest being that of the philosophers, artists, poets, or lovers—and the lowest stage of all, the tyrant.

But from the souls of those who have once gazed on celestial truth or beauty the remembrance can never be effaced. Like some divine

* New York: D. Appleton & Company.

inspiration, the glories of this other world possess and haunt them; and it is because their souls are ever struggling upward, and fluttering like a bird that longs to soar heavenward, and because they are rapt in contemplation and careless of earthly matters, that the world calls the philosopher, the lover, and the poet, "mad." For the earthly copies of justice or temperance, or any of the higher qualities are seen but through a glass dimly, and few are they who can discern the reality by looking at the shadow.

And thus the sight of any earthly beauty in face or form thrills the genuine lover with unutterable awe and amazement, because it re-

calls the memory of the celestial beauty seen by him once in the sphere of eternal being. The divine wings of his soul are warmed and glow with desire, and he lives in a sort of ecstasy, and shudders, "with the misgivings of a former world." Often, indeed, a furious struggle takes place between the charioteer and the dark and vicious horse that wishes to draw the chariot of the soul on to unlawful deeds, and can only be curbed by bit and bridle. Happy are they who, with the help of the white immortal steed, can win the victory in this struggle, and end their lives in a peaceful and genuine friendship.—*From Plato's "Phaedrus."*

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Holiday
Publications.

A collection of those charming sketches for which the author has won wide fame, forms "The Foot-Path Way."* They are mostly studies of bird life as made in his rambles through various parts of the country, with an occasional chapter on trees and flowers. In close sympathy with all forms of life, this naturalist is one of nature's best and best received interpreters.—Four unique and delightful sketches are contained in the volume bearing the name "In Gold and Silver."† From a hunt through the Orient in search of a certain beautiful rug, the subject of the first sketch, the reader is brought back home to follow the author in his outdoor expeditions for fish and game. Subtle fancies and delicate suggestions abound in the narratives, adding greatly to the pleasure they give.—Hamlin Garland's touching story "A Little Norsk,"‡ which first appeared as a magazine serial, now forms an attractive book. In its pages great-hearted, strong, uncultured humanity is made to express through forbidding surroundings, the tenderest and truest of sentiments and sympathies.—Uniform in size and design with the preceding volume, varying only in the color of its covers and the edges of its leaves, is "The People of Pisgah."§ It also is largely a dialect story; but here all likeness ceases. The latter is a humorous sketch, rather strained in its conceptions, but presenting some extremely ludicrous situations. The imagination of this author frequently leads him

too far, and some of the overwrought scenes mar rather than add to the enjoyment of its fun.

"Mr. Billy Downs and his Likes"* is the first in a volume of short tales written by Col. Johnston. A reader unacquainted up to this time with the works of this author would soon discover from this book that he possesses that rare knack of telling a story in such a way as to entirely absorb the interest from the beginning. There is a marked power of stamping individuality upon the characters, who are all representatives of southern states.—"By Subtle Fragrance Held"† is the enticing title of a particularly felicitous novel by Mary Fletcher Stevens. Its prose, written as guardedly as if it were poetry, suggests that the author is conversant with classic literature; its vivacious narrative shows her to be a keen observer of human character. Situations not overdrawn and humor not embittered afford a broad and optimistic view of life among refined people. The book is remarkable for revealing in high light so much as it does that is pleasant with so little emphasis on the contrasting shadowy, unpleasant phases of life.—"Save Your Minutes"‡ is the rather forbidding title of a story which is interesting and not oppressively wholesome. The author shows himself an acrobat in getting people into and out of perplexing situations, and the present volume on the average is very readable.—A perusal of the little book "The

*The Foot-Path Way. By Bradford Torrey. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

†In Gold and Silver. By Geo. H. Ellwanger. \$2.00.—

‡A Little Norsk, or Ol' Pap's Flaxen. By Hamlin Garland. 75 cts.—§People at Pisgah. By Edwin W. Sanborn. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

*Mr. Billy Downs and his Likes. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. New York: Charles L. Webster and Co. 75 cts.

†By Subtle Fragrance Held. By Mary Fletcher Stevens. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. \$1.00.

‡Save Your Minutes. By Omer T. Gillett, A.M., M.D. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. New York: Hunt & Eaton. 90 cts.

Las' Day"* perhaps will tune the jangle out of some discordant lives. Simple and full of tenderness it is a country man's story of how love lost from his home was found, divorce averted, and happiness insured.—A bitter wrong done to a young girl by crafty relations for the sake of retaining possession of the large fortune which was hers by right, is the theme of "The Snare of the Fowler."† In the end all things are explained, justice triumphs, and a happy marriage crowns all. The characters are commonplace, there is no high talent shown in the writing, and nothing to be gained by the reading of the book.

"Half Brothers"‡ is weird in its fascination, harrowing in its pathos, complicated in plot, and well written. It has not a tame chapter in it, and a triumph of description is reached in the mountain scene, where Philip finds that the out-cast peasant, a man now of thirty years, oppressed, ignorant, and half savage, is his own half brother. The leading argument of the story is fascination versus love.—All who have read "Fishin' Jimmy" will need no words of eulogy on a new sketch by the same writer to awaken a desire to read it. "Aunt Liefy"§ is a fine piece of character painting. A strange mistake, never explained, proved the means which touched the motive springs of action and changed a hard, unlovely, selfish life into one the exact reverse.—The author of "Miss Toosey's Mission" has given to the world of fiction another of those sweet, strong characters who move as beautiful models for real people to imitate. Dear,¶ who obtained her name through her father's queer blunder of using it at her baptism instead of the real name agreed upon, was in character to every one whom she met just what the name implied.

A new version of three of Shakespeare's plays for young readers forms one of the interesting books|| of the season. "A Midsummer Night's Dream," "As You Like It," and "Julius Caesar" are retold in most delightful manner. A full historical setting is given to the play; all obscurities are explained; and with these are interwoven long selections from the original writings. With

such a treatment as this no child could fail to acquire a love for the great dramatist's works. The book is fully illustrated.—A treasure house of the fiction and the facts of Roman history for young people is "Little Arthur's History of Rome."** No one knows better how to win his way directly to the attention of the children than Mr. Butterworth. The stories are told in that captivating, "Once upon a time" style, and the history is made as interesting as a story. The book is profusely and finely illustrated and with its beautiful red covers is as attractive in form as in matter.—"The Warriors of the Crescent"† contains brief, spirited sketches of numerous famous Mohammedan leaders. Young people, for whom there lurks a special fascination in all things pertaining to the caliphs, sultans, and great moguls, will be particularly interested in its pages.—Child life in New England is very charmingly described in "More Good Times at Hackmatack."‡ Showing emphatically that the children were made to mind and to work after the manner of "ye olden times," it also points out as clearly that this condition of affairs was no drawback to the rollicking fun they used to have. The blending of these elements, duty, work, pleasure, into the formation of strong useful characters, will leave a healthful impression on the minds of the interested little readers of the book.—A Christmas story which will move sympathetic little hearts to their depths and will thoroughly satisfy them with the beautiful way in which everything ended, is "A Slumber Song."§ What a young girl may do to brighten the lives of others is effectively shown; and if the reward which came to her far exceeded that which falls to the lot of common mortals the lesson is no less impressively taught.—The title "In Mother's Place"¶ is suggestive of the contents of the large volume. The sorrow of a mother's death and the accompanying cares bring into action all the tact and managerial qualities of a young girl upon whom as eldest daughter devolves the responsibility of a house full of children and several servants. The book will fill an honored niche in a Sunday-school library.—"Wendover House"|| is a good story for young

*The Las' Day. By Imogen Clark. Illustrated. New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 60 cts.

†The Snare of the Fowler. By Mrs. Alexander.—

‡Half Brothers. By Hebsa Stretton. New York: Cassell Publishing Company.

§Aunt Liefy. By Annie Trumbull Slosson. New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 60 cts.

¶Dear. By the author of Miss Toosey's Mission. Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.00.

||Typical Tales of Fancy, Romance, and History from Shakespeare's Plays. Edited by Robert R. Raymond. New York: Fords, Howard, and Hulbert.

*Little Arthur's History of Rome. By Hezekiah Butterworth. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.25.

†The Warriors of the Crescent. By W. H. Davenport Adams. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡More Good Times at Hackmatack. By Mary P. Wells Smith. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

§A Slumber Song. By Nina Lillian Morgan. Chicago: Searle & Gorton. \$1.00.

¶In Mother's Place. By Kate Neely Festetics. \$1.25.

||Wendover House. By Adelaide L. Rouse. Philadelphia: American Sunday-School Union. \$1.00.

people. Its leading characters are all actuated by high impulses, and through their influence those who are represented as having grown hard and cold, are melted and led back to earnest, loving, helpful lives.

To one interested in the newest poetry, "*In the City by the Lake*"* offers a peculiar charm as being strangely new in many respects. It includes two stories whose heroines start in life at opposite ends of the social scale, both stories impressing special lessons of human sympathy. The scenes representing city conditions and the characters true to life, the best and most lovable of them possessing no impossible virtues, form a clear reflection of real life; but while adhering closely to common sense and the practical side of being, the narrative often rises to beautiful and daring flights of thought.—The first part of the volume entitled "*Thought Throbs*"† is inclined to be heavy or else frothy, lacking in substance, but this can be largely forgiven for the sake of parts of the book, especially "*Halcyone*," a charming romantic drama. All the characters of "*Halcyone*" are taken from Greek mythology. It revels in happy turns of fancy which often are expressed with graceful skill and ease, as for instance the following quotation, by the Zephyr, selected at random:

"I whisper of love,
I playfully hum
To the bees with the breeze,
As I come, as I come!"

The parts are well sustained and form an interesting whole.—A beautiful volume‡ in cover of green and gold, illustrated with soft-toned woodcuts drawn and engraved by favorite artists contains in verse some somber reflections of old age. In sentiment the poems are plaintive throughout, and written in musical measure which reminds one somewhat of Walt Whitman when he deigned to rhyme.—"*Rhymes and Ballads*"|| by Susan Coolidge will equally delight girls and boys. The lines are bright with childhood's own sunshine, and the many quaint and debonair fancies will amuse the idle reader and instruct the apt. Several of the subjects touch upon history, such as *Little Alix*: a story of the children's crusade, *The Marble Queen*, and *Charlotte Brontë*. The illustrations are dainty

and profuse.—A small volume* of not small interest appears in dainty white cover, containing songs, sonnets, and ballads, on a variety of themes.—An epic poem having for its fabric all that pertains to the inspiring subject, "*The Song of America and Columbus*,"† presents to the extent of nearly three hundred pages, a judicious selection from this vast wealth, of all that is most picturesque and at the same time historically most important. The material possessing in itself the elements of adventure, scenic beauty and patriotism, here loses nothing by being rendered into verse. The poetry is very good and its value is enhanced by historical accuracy in every particular.—A pleasing acquisition‡ to descriptive and legendary poetry claims the legends and scenery of Alaska as its reasons for being.—The edition of Wordsworth's poems|| chosen and edited by Matthew Arnold yields more pleasure than usually is gained from this author's works, due in large part to a different arrangement of the poems. Adhering to the old Greek plan of classification by kind, Mr. Arnold groups the poems according as they are of ballad form, narrative, lyrical, poems akin to the antique, and odes, sonnets, and reflective and elegiac poems. This is a more natural poetical order than that given by Wordsworth, whose grouping into poems of the fancy, poems of the imagination, of reflection, etc., while offering an interesting psychical study, is not conducive to appreciation of the author's genius as revealed in his writings. The volume is of good, fine paper and illustrated with exquisite etchings by Edmund H. Garrett.—Best loved poems and characteristic selections from a great host of American and British contributors to poetry and song comprise *Charlotte Fiske Bates' new compilation* called "*The Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song*."‡ In it are represented as well as standard authors, some not recognized in other compilations and some whose productions are the very latest acquisitions to the poetical world. Culled from so many different sources it seemingly offers some sentiment to fit every phase of human emotion or lack of it and something suitable for every occasion, though so great diversity necessitates a rather tantalizing brevity.

* *The Queen's Quire*. By Elisabeth Dupuy. St. Louis: St. Louis News Co. Cloth, 50 cts.; paper, 25 cts.

† *The Story of America and Columbus*. By Kinahan Cornwallis. New York: Office of the Daily Investigator.

‡ *Alaskana*. By Prof. Bushrod W. James, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

|| *Poems of Wordsworth*. Chosen and Edited by Matthew Arnold.—§ *The Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song*. Selected by Charlotte Fiske Bates. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

* *In the City by the Lake*. By Blanche Fearing. Chicago: Searle & Gorton. \$1.25.

† *Thought Throbs*. By Creedmore Fleenor. Louisville: John P. Morton and Company.

‡ *Gleams and Echoes*. By A. R. G. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. \$2.00.

|| *Rhymes and Ballads for Girls and Boys*. Susan Coolidge. Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.50.

Historical,
Economic, and
Financial.

THE work of writing the constitutional and political history of the United States* undertaken by Dr. Von Holst in 1875 is brought to a close with the recent publication of the eighth volume. It was a huge task for any scholar to assume but the result has clearly shown what profound scholarship, and of a foreign type at that, can accomplish. Instead of being a historical narrative or an attempt to construct a historical work by a simple chronicle of events, the author has produced a treatise which from beginning to end is a critical analysis of our living Constitution and political development. From the colonial days and the making of the Constitution the history of American politics and the development of political ideas is traced with admirable keenness of perception. Throughout the work there is everywhere to be found new evidence of the honesty of purpose with which the author labored in arriving at conclusions well balanced and remarkable for their accuracy. The elaborate and exhaustive treatise ends with the Thirty-sixth Congress, a fact which will be regretted by many. Perhaps it is not too much to hope that Professor Von Holst, who is now permanently located at the new University of Chicago, will add to the series. Should this be done the author's estimate of the government and men during the heroic period of the civil war will be read with renewed interest.

One of the best American text-books of political economy† is that written by Francis A. Walker. The advanced course is a book of more than five hundred pages, in which the author considers the subject in three divisions, viz., production, exchange, and distribution. There is a chapter on consumption in which the principle of population is discussed at some length. The practical value of the science of economics generally is shown in the concluding chapter in which eighteen timely questions are analyzed and some economic principles applied. This book will introduce political economy to the student, as it is a science in the modern sense. From the careful exposition of the many phases of economic science and the scientific reasoning throughout, the book is accorded a prominent place in our literature relating to this subject.

Outside the field of economics pure and simple, it is as a writer on public economy that Professor Walker exhibits his superior ability. In

this forcible book* money is not alone treated in its various phases but in addition as it relates to trade and industry. The question of bimetallism is emphasized and the political aspect of the question discussed. In the chapters on government paper money the author succeeds fairly well in maintaining the position of many economists who stand in opposition to government issues of inconvertible paper money. The book is, in the main, soundly logical and will be a real help to students of the money question everywhere.

The author of a new volume† in the Questions of the Day Series, which deals with the cause of high wages and their effect on methods and cost of production, was appointed to a position in the United States Consular Service during the first administration of President Cleveland, and was commissioned by the Department of State to inquire into the economy of production and the state of technical education in Europe. It is maintained that high wages are the most economical because they command the most intelligent and best credited labor. A proposition long ago laid down by John Stuart Mill is that "no remedies for low wages have the smallest chance of being efficacious, which do not operate on and through the minds and habits of the people." The author forgets this governing principle in the progress of his rather hasty inquiry. The economic worth of the discussion is lessened very considerably by the author's strong partisan opinions, which continually appear in the progress of the argument.

A book of real value to the student of economic history is that compiled by Dr. Benjamin Rand of Harvard of which a revised and greatly improved edition has recently been published. The first five hundred pages contain no less than seventeen selections from the best authorities illustrating various phases of economic history since 1763‡ which are followed by five appendices in which the chief subjects considered are, the Navigation Acts of England and America, the American Civil War, the growth of Canada and the United States in 1890, and the indebtedness of the state and federal governments of the United States. A valuable bibliography and index complete the remaining pages.

A new book|| is that by Mr. Edward Atkinson which is made up of a series of articles lately

* Money, Trade, and Industry. By Francis A. Walker. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

† The Economy of High Wages. By J. Schoenhof. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.

‡ Economic History since 1763. By Benjamin Rand, Ph.D. Cambridge, Mass.: John Wilson & Son. \$3.00.

|| Taxation and Work. By Edward Atkinson. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.25.

* Constitutional and Political History of the United States. By Dr. H. Von Holst. Chicago: Callaghan & Company.

† Political Economy, Advanced Course. By Francis A. Walker. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

written for several prominent journals so revised that they present to the reader the theoretical and practical sides of the tariff question in chapters consecutively arranged. The thesis of the book is that the principal need of the country to-day lies in a radical reform of our system of national revenue. The book deals with the distribution of the nation's wealth and those who produce it, the sources from which revenue is collected, tariff reform in England, the inconsistencies of a protective policy as the author sees them, methods of tariff reform, high wages and the cost of production as they relate to each other, and, finally, a survey of the free trade and protective policies as they relate to the people

and nation generally, and, particularly, as they affect the business and industries of the country.

Good reading indeed is the late edition of *Economic Essays** written by Horace Greeley in 1869. The thought of the book is largely given over to an explanation and defense of the policy of protection to home industry as a system of national co-operation for the elevation of labor. This book first published more than twenty years ago and originally intended for a popular reading, will be made doubly interesting in view of the subsequent development of economic science and the recent history of tariff legislation.

* *Essays on Political Economy.* By Horace Greeley. Philadelphia: Porter and Coates.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR NOVEMBER, 1892.

HOME NEWS.—November 1. The British government notified by Secretary Foster that President Harrison assents to the plan for the suppression of the liquor and firearm traffic with the Pacific Islanders.—Resignation of Dr. William M. Taylor as pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle in New York City.

November 3. Cotton manufacturers of Fall River advance the wages of their operatives 7 per cent on an average.

November 6. Colonels Hawkins and Streater found not guilty of assaulting private Iams.

November 8. Soldiers in Arizona in pursuit of Yaqui Indians on the warpath.

November 12. Professor Jacob Gould Schurman inaugurated as president of Cornell University.

November 13. A heavy earthquake shock felt throughout California.

November 15. Closing session of Methodist General Missionary Committee at Baltimore; over \$100,000 appropriated for missions.

November 20. The strike at Carnegie's Homestead steel works declared off by the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers.

November 21. Opening in New York City of the Continental Congress of the Salvation Army of the United States.

November 23. Meteoric displays witnessed in various parts of the United States.

November 25. Destructive floods in the north-west cause great suffering, especially among the miners and railroad men.—The Sons of the Revolution celebrate Evacuation Day in New York City.

November 29. Death of the Rev. Dr. John Witherspoon Scott, father-in-law of President Harrison.

FOREIGN NEWS.—November 1. Cholera raging in China; number of deaths estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000.

November 3. The long strike at Carmaux, France, ended, and the miners return to work.

November 4. The king of Denmark pardons the American ex-consul, Henry B. Rider, sentenced there recently to eighteen months' imprisonment.

November 5. Great strike among the cotton operatives of England.

November 9. Death of the duke of Marlborough.

November 11. Alarming increase of cholera in France.

November 12. Death and burial of Theodore Child at Julfa, near Ispahan, Persia.

November 13. Dr. Koch says Chicago need have no fears of cholera contagion from German exhibits.

November 15. The French government decides to prosecute the directors of the Panama Canal Company.

November 18. The Socialist Congress in Berlin rejects a resolution binding all Socialists to cease work on May Day and adopts a resolution of opposition to state Socialism.

November 22. Meeting in Brussels of the International Monetary Congress.

November 25. Sir John Abbot resigns the premiership of Canada and is succeeded by Sir John Thompson.

